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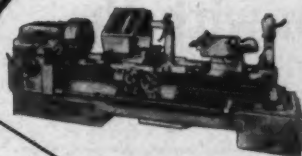


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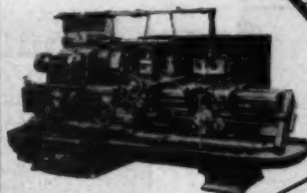
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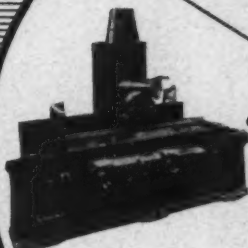
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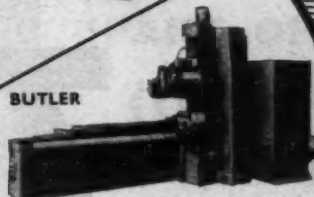
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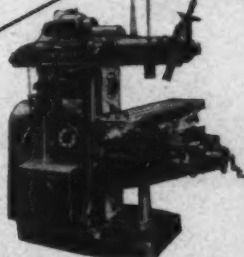
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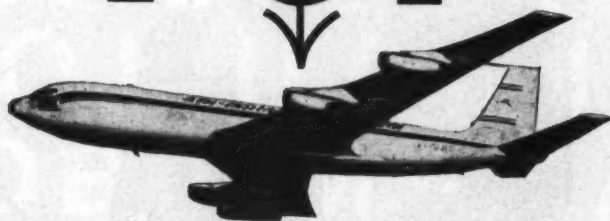
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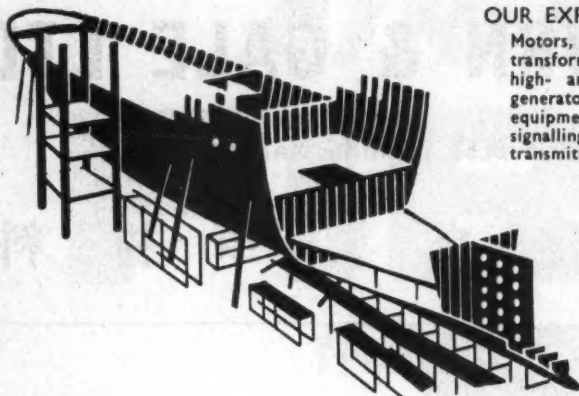
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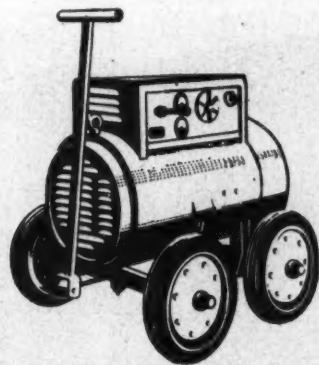
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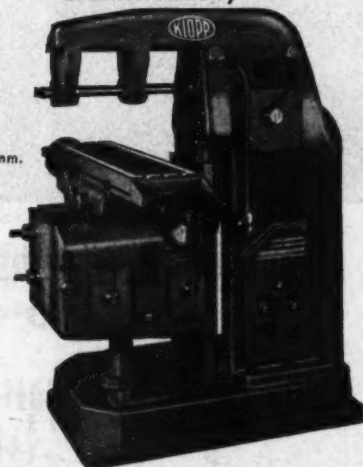
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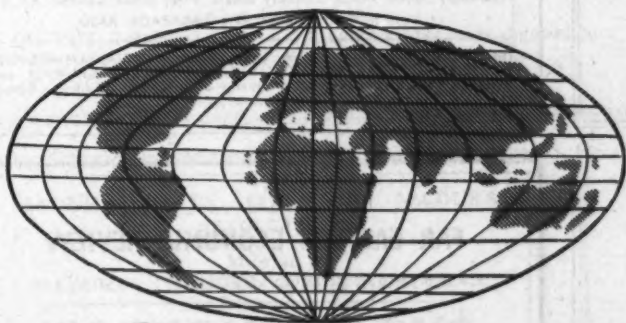
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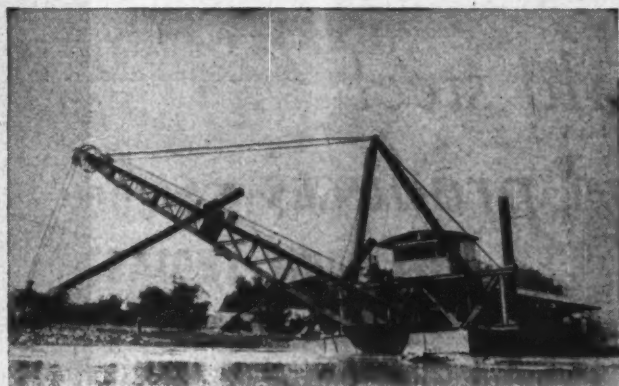
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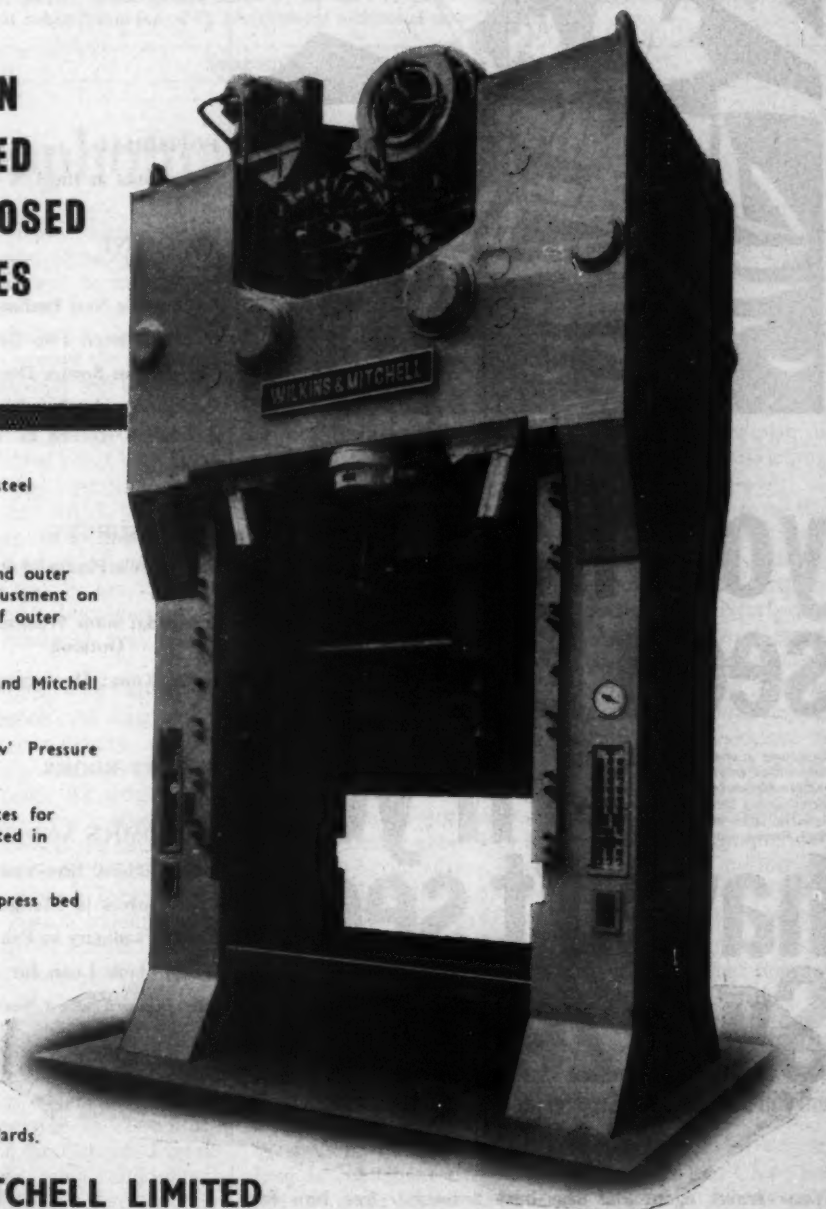
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London

September

1960

Sinophobia at the UN

ONCE again, in the new session of the United Nations opening this month, the question of recognition of the rights of Communist China will be raised, and once again the USA will want it shelved for yet another year. In the political Committee and then in the General Assembly, the Americans will easily secure the necessary majorities. An annually recurring vexation will thus again be swiftly disposed of. But can the member nations dispose of China in this way? Conscious of her great-power position, in reality no less than in international law, China today casts her huge, looming shadow over any part of the world she pleases. The partial isolation into which China has been pushed does not prevent her from making her presence felt even in the distant affairs of Algeria, Cuba and the Congo. However ineffective may be her contributions in these areas, China's moral and political inspiration to intransigence is a considerable headache even to the Afro-Asian countries.

China's unconciliatory temper appears to worsen in direct ratio with her economic advance. As long as the United Nations continue to affront her dignity, and the United States to challenge her rights, she will probably refuse to exercise her potential influence for world peace in a manner commensurate with her status as a great power. Many delegations at the UN have assessed the situation in this way, and believe that nothing less than full participation in the world organisation will have a sobering and mollifying effect on Peking, but they remain stalemated by the arm-twisting tactics of the US in UN lobbies.

Mr. Chou En-lai's resurrection last month of the Chinese proposition for a nuclear-free zone in the Pacific Ocean area, in agreement with all interested parties including the US, elicited only an instant and automatic rejection by the State Department. It was little more than a reflex action, tinged with anxiety lest any delay might allow some government to give a favourable response to Chou's proposal. In view of the breakdown of the Geneva disarmament negotiations, Chou's timing was undoubtedly precipitate, but the US might have been wiser to let others take the onus of saying so. Increasing numbers of Americans have begun to feel that the nervousness and absence of poise in the State Department itself is chiefly

to blame for the ridicule in which its policies are held.

The great constructive and productive drive of China, now in its third successive year, is regarded abroad with wonder, not unmixed with apprehension. There is no longer the same deliberate and wishful blindness as was the case during the earlier phases of Soviet planning claims. In China's case the world's imagination is genuinely boggled by the swiftness of her progress in industrialisation. No one disbelieves that China will succeed in her plan of producing 18 million tons of steel this year, thus setting up a record unparalleled anywhere else.

Wonder is felt, too, about the mass response of the "people's communes". This is a large and more thoroughgoing mobilisation of an entire people than any military staff has ever dared, or would be likely to dare contemplate, even for the demands of a nuclear war. Nearly 600 million people have been treated statistically as so many mouths and so many pairs of hands, put into disciplined working-groups, and smoothly organised without the use of physical force. The difficulties encountered with several national minorities, including the prolonged resistance in Tibet, in no way change the fact that the Chinese people have been induced to alter their mode of family life, give up their separate possessions, and now live in "communes"—and all nearly entirely by agitation and propaganda, with hardly any compulsion. On any issue, home or foreign, the 650 million Chinese can today be persuaded to follow whatever their leaders in Peking decree. It frightens Moscow as well as Delhi.

Last month in these columns, it was suggested that the Bucharest declaration of the 12 Communist parties, including the Chinese, who supported the Khrushchev thesis that war is no longer inevitable, meant that China has decided to align herself on this question with Russia. But in *Pravda* and other Soviet journals the debate goes on against those who quote Scripture—in this case Lenin—in support of the doctrine of the inevitability of war so long as capitalism exists. The inference is that China has not yet come into line. If China adheres to her doctrine and develops her war potential accordingly, including atomic weapons, then even the Sino-Soviet alliance may prove an insufficient antidote to the world's fear of China.

To accord China her rightful place in the UN, letting her experience the changed and changing trends of world feeling, would probably have a far more potent effect. Other great powers have felt the restraining pressures of opinion in the world forum, and China, too, would learn there how to

yield to an international consensus of opinion. Buddha's precept that "real victory is one which is a defeat for none" might be followed with advantage towards China by the anxious minds at the UN, so that she in her turn may adopt it in her approach to the rest of the world.

Comment

Phizo Mystification

DAVID ASTOR of the *Observer* and the Rev. Michael Scott of the Africa bureau incongruously combined forces to rub Nehru's face in the mud over the Naga dispute. The presence in London of A. Z. Phizo, the Naga rebel leader, gave them the opportunity. The Government of India was mystified, the Government of Britain embarrassed, and the press in this country, both British and Indian, irritated by the way the whole affair was handled—the statements and press conferences, and the mystery-mongering about Phizo's whereabouts. There is still no clear and satisfactory answer to any of the questions raised—how Phizo came here, who financed him, where he is staying, his national status, who secured an El Salvador passport issued in Manila for him, and how it is that his movements were better known to US Baptist missions than even to Michael Scott. There was only the theme-song that India must allow foreign journalists to visit the Naga hills, and that an "independent commission" must be set up to inquire into the "atrocities" alleged by Phizo.

The game of India-baiting is wearing thin, even when a man of Michael Scott's reputation (as a friend of the oppressed African peoples) is drawn into it. In one or two of Scott's answers to journalists' questions there was just a hint of sharp dislike for certain prominent Indians. David Astor's motives were no doubt different. For him it is probably as good sport to paint Nehru in his Sunday paper as a horned monster letting loose a brutal, lecherous army against the defenceless Nagas as to make paper plans with Jai Prakash Narain how to disband the Indian political parties and the armed forces.

Whether Astor, Scott and Phizo intend to give us a third act of their whodunit, now that Delhi has reached an accommodation with the Naga leaders, is uncertain. India's agreement to give state status to Nagaland as the sixteenth state of the Union of India has taken the wind out of their sails. Scott, on his own admission, hopes to transfer the Phizo show to the United Nations lobbies in New York. That would teach Nehru a lesson for not having invited Michael Scott to Delhi with Phizo to help him put things right in the Naga hills!

Pakistan's Progress

THE best news to come out of Pakistan for a long time is the agreement on the Indus waters, to be signed with India this month. The lion's share of the credit for the agreement, apart from the principals concerned, must go for negotiating patiently over the years to the World Bank and to a number of other countries, particularly the US, for financing the expensive scheme of division and supply of the waters of the Punjab rivers. This agreement will, it is widely believed in both India and Pakistan, lead to fresh and hopeful bilateral talks on Kashmir. Both countries count not only on the immediate gains but also on the benefits of lasting friendship between two such close neighbours.

The military dictatorship in Pakistan tends to diminish in the eyes of outside observers the Government's endeavours to better the condition of the people. Newspapers in Britain and America recently played up as something sensational the news of the oil-prospecting agreement with the Soviet Union, while passing over in silence the far more significant programmes of development under Pakistan's Second Five-Year Plan published in July. This Plan, 1960-65, aims "to achieve a breakthrough in agriculture and industrial development by encouraging private enterprise and the expansion of education at all levels". The stress on private enterprise is unavoidable since Pakistan depends very largely on American assistance for the necessary investment capital.

However, if the hopes of American aid fully materialise, the Plan will in five years raise the Pakistani national income by 20 per cent, the per capita income by 10 per cent, and industrial production by 50 per cent, making the country self-sufficient in food grains and sugar, and nearly self-sufficient in a number of consumer goods. But one of the Economic Council's assumptions is that the standard of living could only be improved if the population remained within reasonable limits. This is a problem that cannot be solved by governmental decree.

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Korea Turns Democratic

JOHAN MYUN CHANG'S Democratic Party gained such a sweeping victory in the South Korean election last month that in order to sustain democracy it decided to split itself to provide an Opposition in the House of Representatives. Syngman Rhee ruled the Republic of Korea for 12 years, amending the constitution as and when he thought fit to suit his policies, but the old dictator never had the wisdom to provide himself with an Opposition of his own making. He has paid the price of his shortsightedness, and within four months of his downfall, his Liberal Party collapsed altogether. Chang has a record of service to the "free world" as well as of differences with Rhee, but many Koreans question where he found the large sums spent on his election campaign, and how he managed to secure the blessings of the US State Department, unless he intends to carry on with the same policies as heretofore.

Nor are Koreans in Japan fully convinced that below the 38th parallel things are about to look up. Those who would like to return home are still queuing for passage to North Korea, regardless whether they came originally from the North or the South. No doubt economic conditions for Koreans in Japan are not tolerable, but their preference for the Communist north is a significant commentary by the ordinary man as to where he believes his prospects will be best. According to Japanese press reports those Koreans who opted for the North now fear they may not all be able to go. They fear pressure on Japan from the US and South Korea to stop a repatriation that brings discredit both to South Korea and the variety of democracy prevalent there.

Hanoi and Saigon

SOUTH VIETNAM is making big claims for its land reform. But the figures are not impressive, and the allegedly "expropriated" landowners are being fully compensated. Apparently American advice in favour of radical reforms has been less fruitful in South Vietnam than in Japan.

Saigon also persists in the charge that the North is violating the Geneva agreement by acquiring Russian fighters, enlarging airfields and equipping them with rockets, stationing armed forces within the demilitarised zone, and above all trying to subvert the South by terrorism. Recently Saigon reported having fought a successful battle against two thousand armed men quite near the capital. Obviously Ngo Dinh Diem's regime is not as popular as it would have the world believe.

The picture of the North, however, as reported by European visitors, including the editor of this paper, is a very different one. As one would expect in a Communist-dominated area, there is hectic activity in all fields. Hanoi in its turn complains of the South's violation of the Geneva agreement on the same points they are themselves accused of. On one issue, at any rate, they appear to have a very strong case, namely the Americanisation of Ngo Dinh Diem's forces. The USA is blatantly sending in officers to fill the "vacuum" created by the withdrawal of the French. Last July, North Vietnamese Premier Pham Van Dong wrote to 21 Asian and African countries as well as to the Co-Chairmen of the Geneva

Conference, drawing their attention to the need to stop US interference in South Vietnam. General Vo-Nguyen Giap, Commander-in-Chief of Hanoi forces, has since May 1959 repeatedly written to Ambassador S.S. Ansari, Indian Chairman of the international Supervisory Commission on this issue. The Commission, however, keeps its blind eye firmly glued to the telescope, and can discover nothing wrong.

Laos Goes Neutralist

LAOS, a Buddhist kingdom with two capitals and three million souls, has experienced a small *coup d'état* which may be the beginning of big changes for the whole of South-East Asia. It was one Monday last month, while the king and his cabinet were in the royal capital of Luang Prahang, that a battalion of paratroopers under Captain Kong Lae seized the administrative capital of Vientiane. Captain Kong Lae made it clear from the outset that the country has had enough of American dollar supervision in every field of the country's affairs (in his own battalion alone there were no fewer than ten American instructors) and that many of his friends and colleagues could no longer bear the "deception" of the supposed neutrality of Laos. He favoured a genuinely neutralist government that would practise cooperation with, and accept aid, from all countries. Under the Premiership of Prince Souvanna Phouma, such a government is now in existence.

But Asians are anxious whether Washington will allow it to become established. The SEATO powers are already exclaiming that this is not a matter of exclusively Laotian concern. Since 1955, the US has been pouring in over \$300 million in economic and military aid, which is more per capita than that given to any other country. US funds do not support the government and the army of 30,000 in order to turn Laos over to neutralist influences. Following a SEATO Council meeting after the Laotian coup, the Secretary-General Nai Pote Sarasin declared that SEATO was concerned because the "security" within its area had been affected by the change in the Laotian government. An article in the *New York Herald Tribune* feared "an inimical neutralist wedge will have been driven right through the SEATO area," and asserted that the Americans, who have "so deeply committed themselves in Laos, are hardly likely to allow themselves to be ignominiously evicted by a new regime".

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INDONESIA'S NEW PARLIAMENT

JUSTUS M. VAN DER KROEF

ON March 5, 1960, President Sukarno issued a decree "freezing" (i.e. suspending) the Indonesian parliament on the grounds that that body "had failed to fulfil the hope of mutual assistance between cabinet and parliament". The real reason was that parliament, with rare unanimity among the major parties, was on the verge of rejecting the government's budget for 1960 which would have allowed for continuing deficit financing (thereby greatly aggravating Indonesia's galloping inflation) and for extraordinary appropriations by the cabinet without prior parliamentary approval. In the background was also the growing restiveness among deputies of widely divergent political persuasion over the increasing tendency on the part of Sukarno to legislate by executive decree, a procedure which the President justified on the basis of the country's return to the 1945 Constitution in July 1959. Additionally many deputies opposed continuation of the martial law provisions sharply curtailing expressions and organization of political opinion, a curtailment deemed desirable by the government in the interest of domestic stability. Shortly after his "freezing" order the President announced that plans were going forward with the composition of a new *gotong royong* (mutual assistance) parliament, to be chosen by himself, and on March 27 he revealed the roster of names of the new legislature.

As originally announced, the new parliament had 261 members (the old one had about 270), divided between two groups: 130 deputies from nine political parties, and 131 from various so-called "functional" groups such as the peasantry, artists, organized labour, scientists and experts, youth, religious scholars, and so on. Among the "functionals" are also 35 members from the Armed Forces, State Police and Village Guard organization.

Shortly afterwards the President left on a two-month foreign tour, declaring that the new MP's would be installed after his return home. The President's absence certainly was conducive to a good deal of soul searching and exchange of views among the various political movements in the country. It was noted, for example, that with the composition of the new *gotong royong* parliament Sukarno had succeeded in doing what he had long announced he would do, namely bring about a "simplification" of the political party system in Indonesia. Some 20 political parties lost their seats. The Masjumi (Muslim Federation) and Socialist parties, which because of their size and influence would have been entitled to party representation, were the most noteworthy casualties and their exclusion from the new parliament was justified on the grounds that they had not disavowed some of their leaders who are presently heading the rebel "United Indonesian Republic" movement in Sumatra, the Celebes and from outside the country. The Indonesian Communist Party was assigned 30 members in the new parliament, but prominent Muslim figures pointed out that Communist influence, if not discipline, also extended itself from 25 to 30 members of various functional groups so that the Communist bloc had perhaps become the largest. In the previous parliament which had no "functional representation" the Communists had had 39 seats, with two or three additional

followers among radical Marxists in minor groupings. Muslim spokesmen also argued that in view of the importance of the Islamic religion and movement in Indonesia Muslim organizations should have been given a greater number of seats. As it was, they argued, Muslim parties had only 43 delegates; 36 in the Conservative Muslim Scholars party, and the remaining seven in two minor parties. Additionally, there were to be eight Muslim members in the functional group of "clerics". The discussion over the question of party loyalties of functional members became more and more heated and the juggling with figures representing alleged party blocs more and more complicated. From that point of view alone the term *gotong royong* (mutual assistance) for the new parliament began to strike some observers as singularly inappropriate.

There were still other criticisms, including some that concerned the qualifications of the newly appointed members. As the Djakarta daily *Indonesian Observer* pointed out editorially on March 30, 1960, all five persons designated to represent the functional group of "scientists and experts" are not "experts" in the true sense of the word at all and "are better known as die-hard politicians". The two delegates from the functional group of "journalists" represent a newsagency, and are not connected with a newspaper. Other, more radical, dailies expressed misgivings about the political orientation of some of the new deputies, especially of those who had held seats in the previous parliament and who were noted for their advocacy of principles of "liberal democracy", i.e. of parliamentary legislative supremacy and cabinet responsibility, principles which, since the return to "guided democracy", have been officially condemned. The conservative press, in contrast, suggested that the new parliament was little more than a façade, and that it was largely composed of "yes men".

Whatever the merit of these charges and counter charges the principal opposition to the new parliament came to be directed by a group calling itself the "Democratic League". The League appears to have acquired followers even before Sukarno had announced the new *gotong royong* parliament.

The members of the League come mainly from avowed anti-Communist groups, notably the Catholic and Protestant political parties (which had been given five and six seats in the new parliament respectively), the Masjumi and the Socialists (both of which were excluded, as has been indicated), and the Independence Upholders Party (IPKI). The last group, though a minor party with only four seats in the old parliament and with no party seats in the new *gotong royong* parliament, is quite influential, because in important Central and East Java provinces it has considerable following among Army personnel. IPKI's affiliation with the League meant that the Army High Command would have to deal cautiously with the new opposition movement. And indeed, one of the remarkable features of the League's career so far has been the fact that although President Sukarno has bitterly denounced the group as being "opposed to the people's wishes for 'guided democracy'", and notwithstanding the extremely close scrutiny exercised by Army authorities over all (and especially potentially subversive) political activity, local Army commanders charged with enforcing martial law regulations have

declared the League's activities to be "within the framework of Indonesian laws".

Another noteworthy aspect of the League was that at first it had a not inconsiderable following among other Moslem parties, notably among the Moslem Scholars party, among "Ansor" (the youth movement of the Moslem Scholars group), and in lesser Muslim factions. But this affiliation notably embarrassed the top leadership of the Moslem Scholars Party, which has made this party one of the most opportunistic in Indonesia, collaborating with all groups that happen to be rising to power, including the Communists, counting on the conservative Islamic and nativistic traditions of the rural Javanese masses for support, and keeping its programme couched in the vaguest of generalities. It now appears that demands in some quarters of the Scholars Party that the League be supported were subsequently used by the party's leadership as leverage to obtain additional seats for the Moslem group as a whole in the new parliament, in order to offset Communist strength, and when Sukarno, during his world tour, in effect agreed to enlarge the original 261 membership of parliament with new members, mostly from religious organizations, the executive of the Scholars party sternly forbade its members from having anything to do with the League. Even so it is most probable that the programme of the League continues to elicit sympathy in Muslim organizations other than the Masjumi.

The objectives of the Democratic League have changed slightly over the past few months. Originally the group opposed as "undemocratic" and "unconstitutional" Sukarno's intention to handpick his own *gotong royong* parliament after having dissolved the old one. The new parliament should be elected, urged the League. In this position the League was not alone. The Indonesian Communist Party too, for example, in a telegram to Sukarno after the dissolution of parliament declared that "every patriot who upholds basic democratic principles very seriously regrets the action taken" and that general elections be held for a new parliament this year. When it became evident that the President intended to proceed with the formation of a new parliament personally appointed by him, and when First Minister Djuanda declared that general elections would not take place until 1962, the League abandoned its fight for a delay in the formation of the new parliament and concentrated on an attack on the legality and composition of the new parliament itself. It now excoriated what it termed "undue influence" of the Communists in the new body, demanded party representation for the Masjumi and Socialists, expounded on the constitutional powers of parliament under the Constitution of 1945 which Sukarno allegedly was ignoring, and so on. To the vociferous attack from Communists, President Sukarno, the Information Ministry and some Nationalist Party leaders that the League was undermining national unity, spokesmen for the League replied by saying that apart from the modifications requested in the structure of "guided democracy", the League was in full accord with the other basic policies of the government, e.g. the League is not against Sukarno, it supports the national claim on Dutch held West New Guinea and it favours a planned reconstruction of the national economy and an active and "independent" foreign policy.

At the moment the leadership of the League is not wholly united and reportedly there is resentment in the ranks of IPKI over the efforts of the Socialists to capture the movement. On the other hand the League has been attracting supporters recently even among members of the Nationalist

Party, the group with which Sukarno himself is usually identified and which has been the staunchest backer of the President in his recent schemes of reform. The rift in Nationalist Party ranks has already resulted in the withdrawal of former Speaker of Parliament Sartono from the new *gotong royong* parliament, ostensibly "for reasons of health".

All this, combined with the Army's refusal to interfere with the League, must have given Sukarno pause during his world tour and after his return to the country. In any event, on June 17, the President announced that the original 261 members of his new parliament would be broadened to 283, the additional members coming primarily from anti-Communist religious circles. But the League, despite this gesture, showed no inclination to abandon its agitation. Even when on June 24, First Minister Djuanda informed League leaders that they should disband their organization or face official action the League remained adamant. Thus, with traditional opposition parties like Masjumi out of parliament, a strong and genuine extra-parliamentary opposition to the entire course of affairs in Indonesia in the past four years appears now to have gained a foothold in public life. The Masjumi has also announced that it will boycott provincial legislatures in protest against the new parliament and similar moves are planned by other groups supporting the Democratic League.

There are other indications that the popularity of the Sukarno regime is waning. On March 9, 1960, shortly after Sukarno dissolved parliament, the Presidential palaces were strafed by an Indonesian MIG-17, manned by an Indonesian pilot who at first was reported to have acted because of a personal grudge against the President, but who now, it appears, was involved in a subversive organization, the so-called "National Peace Operation Command" headed by former Army colonel Sukanda Bratamenggala. With the Sukanda group, according to a statement of the Army Information Chief in early April, other underground organizations are affiliated, such as the so-called *Manguni* organization led by Samuel Karundeng, the Sunda Youth Front, the Sunda Legion, and others. These organizations also appear to have been responsible for an unsuccessful armed attack on the Cavalry Centre in the city of Bandung on March 20, for a number of terrorist forays in West Java, for an upsurge of dacoit activity in Central Java, and for unrest bordering on mutiny in a number of encampments of the Police Mobile Brigade.

Indonesia has far too many such subversive organizations for it to be able to survive in the long run: one counts the forces of the "United Indonesian Republic", in Sumatra, of Darul Islam extremists in West Java, South Kalimantan (Borneo) and South and Central Sulawesi (Celebes), and of the "Republic of the South Moluccas" on the island of Seran in East Indonesia. Separately these organizations are not strong, but collectively they and the various bands of plain marauders and dacoits operating in many areas, render domestic stability an illusion for years to come.

Whatever the justification for the discontent with the Sukarno scheme of things it runs far and deep in many segments of Indonesian life. The President may well eventually suppress the Democratic League, but this would only mean that yet another opposition element has been driven underground, capable of threatening the government at some future date. Perhaps Sukarno may yet belatedly discover that not the least of the advantages of a freely functioning parliament is that it allows for expression of criticism of government without necessarily wrecking the whole country in the process.

NEPAL BETWEEN TWO GIANTS

G. S. BHARGAVA

FOR the Nepalese, the Cold War does not mean the remote, though all-pervading East-West tension, nor does neutrality connote to them keeping aloof from Big Power rivalries. Sandwiched between the two Asian giants India and China, which are poles apart from each other politically and ideologically, the Himalayan Kingdom needs to befriend both of them. This is a difficult task indeed. Even within India, where Nepal's efforts at neutrality are respected, there are many who, though they support India's own non-alignment with either of the world powers, view with disfavour and suspicion Nepal's efforts to pursue a similar policy *vis-à-vis* the Sino-Indian imbroglio.

Katmandu has been scrupulously trying to steer clear of the Sino-Indian dispute, but has nevertheless been unable to avoid getting involved in complications with Peking. A serious border incident, during which Chinese troops killed a Nepalese Army officer 200 yards inside the Nepal frontier and took 17 villagers as prisoners, gave a severe jolt to Sino-Nepalese relations last June. Though Peking apologised, returned most of the prisoners and the body of the shot man and paid the compensation of 50,000 rupees demanded by the Nepalese Government there have been reports of violation of Nepalese territory by Chinese troops ever since, and the atmosphere between the two neighbours is tense.

It is unfortunate that Nepal's first elected Government, within its first year of administration, should be confronted with such a delicate situation on its frontiers while big domestic tasks await its concentrated attention. The young Socialist Prime Minister, Bishweshwar Prasad Koirala, and his Government have acquitted themselves extremely creditably. They have resisted pressures of all kinds and have remained steadfast to their policy of non-alignment.

Formal Nepal-India relations date back to 1792 when the then Government in Katmandu signed a commercial treaty with the East India Company. But it was more than a trade agreement. Only the previous year the Nepalese had invaded Tibet and ransacked the Digarchi monastery, whose Lama was the spiritual adviser to the Emperor of China. The Chinese intervened and despatched troops to resist the Nepalese. The Gurkha King of Nepal then sought military aid from Lord Cornwallis, Governor-General of India. As the East India Company did not want to get involved in a military dispute, it offered to mediate between Nepal and China, and a delegation under Captain Kirkpatrick was sent to Katmandu.

By the time Capt. Kirkpatrick and his men reached the Nepalese Capital in February 1793, Nepal had already bowed to the superior military might of the Chinese Emperor and made peace with him. The British wanted Capt. Kirkpatrick to be accepted as Resident at the Court of Katmandu but the Nepalese were chary of closer ties with India, and the relations between the East India Company representing India and the Gurkha kings of Nepal steadily deteriorated. Starting with frequent border skirmishes, this led to the Indo-Nepalese War of 1814 during which Nepal was overpowered and made to surrender territory to the Company by the treaty of Segouli.

Meanwhile, there were political changes in Katmandu. In 1846, Jung Bahadur Rana, an Army general, became Prime

Minister after killing all his opponents in what is called the Kot Massacre. He then forced the King, who was a weakling, to make the Prime Ministership hereditary and to reduce himself to a figure head, with the Prime Minister as the *de facto* ruler of the kingdom. This arrangement of a monarchical form of government with the actual power vested in the hands of a feudal oligarchy continued till the Palace revolution of 1951 by which the King freed himself from the clutches of the Rana premiers.

The Rana rule in Katmandu marked a change in the attitude of the country towards British India. During the 1857 uprising, the Ranas helped the British with men and money and in return got back the territory ceded to the Company by the treaty of Segouli. In 1875, the boundary between Nepal and Uttar Pradesh (then eastern Oudh), which had been a bone of contention for long, was settled. Later in 1904, at the time of the Younghusband expedition in Tibet, Nepal provided a yak supply column, and finally helped the British Government during the Afghan war of 1919. In 1923, an Indo-Nepal treaty of peace and friendship was signed.

Even in the 18th century, Indo-Nepalese relations were influenced by Nepal's ties with Tibet, directly, and China, indirectly. It was a kind of seesaw with Nepal as fulcrum and India and Tibet (China) at either end. In March 1855, when Nepal's relations with British India were the happiest, 27,000 Nepalese crossed the Kuti and Kirong passes into Tibet and forced the latter into a mutual security pact by which the Tibetans agreed to pay Nepal an annual tribute of Rs. 10,000. Both promised to honour the Chinese Emperor. Nepalese traders were free to trade in Tibet, and Nepal was to station an envoy in Lhasa to look after her interests. Only Indian acquiescence in Chinese suzerainty over Tibet, following the Sino-Tibetan Treaty of May 23, 1951, which converted Tibet into "an autonomous province" of the Chinese Republic, made Nepal follow suit in 1956. In 1952 Nepal accepted the *fait accompli* over the stoppage of payment of the annual tribute of Rs. 10,000 by Tibet. Four years later, she signed a new treaty with China renouncing all her extra-territorial rights and concessions in Tibet and agreeing to withdraw her military escort from Lhasa.

That the Nepalese Prime Minister who negotiated this treaty with Peking was pro-Chinese was not significant. After India had recognised Tibet as a part of China and after the powerful and centralised regime in Peking was able to make its writ run in Tibet, Nepal had no other choice. If the initial cordiality between India and China had continued, Nepal would not have had to walk the tight rope so obviously. It is just as obvious that B. P. Koirala, the present Prime Minister, who has played a vital role in India's struggle for freedom in 1942 and whose sympathy and friendship for India are well-known, cannot side with India in her dispute with China. Nepalese, of all political opinions, feel that it will hurt their interests to be involved in that issue.

No doubt, Nepal has been receiving sizable economic and technical aid from India. To date it is valued at Rs. 100 million. Besides, India has been helping Nepal build up her vital lines of transportation and supply. The Tribhuvan

Rajpath, a 972-mile highway linking Katmandu with the Indian border was constructed by Indian engineers. In 1958, an Indo-US—Nepalese road agreement was signed providing for the laying of nearly 900 miles of roads in the mountain Kingdom. Indians are also working on the improvement and modernisation of airstrips at Lokhara, Bhairava and Biratnagar and Indian experts have prepared a scheme for consolidating and improving the primitive postal system in Nepal. Furthermore Nepalese engineers are being trained in India in building dams and constructing hydro-electric projects, and India has agreed to assist Nepal in the construction of the Trisul Hydro-Electric Project costing Rs. 37.5 million. Projects for small irrigation and supply of drinking water are high on the priority list of the Nepal Government's development schemes and India has agreed to contribute Rs. 500,000 for that purpose.

India and Nepal are also collaborating on the Kosi and Gandak projects which include the construction of flood banks, barrages, headworks and canal systems on rivers flowing from Nepal into eastern India. As these projects begin to

yield to results, Nepal's face will change for the better in the next decade. This is the aim of the Koirala Government, and peace in this part of the world is essential for its achievements. Here is another reason for Nepal's policy of neutrality. From China, too, Nepal has received Rs. 10 million in economic aid as part of a Rs. 60-million aid programme.

Strangely enough, the Sino-Indian dispute and its repercussions loom so large on the Nepalese political horizon that as a way out the Nepalese are developing a 'world consciousness', in conjunction with neutrality in Sino-Indian affairs. Though aid from both India and China has been accepted, the Nepalese preference is for assistance routed through the United Nations. With both the US and the USSR aiding the country, the East-West cold war has little relevance to Nepal. While the United States has signed six agreements with Nepal relating to the development of agriculture, mineral resources, local health services, education and small-scale industries, Russia has agreed to set up a hydro-electric power plant, a sugar factory with a diesel power plant as well as to prepare a survey for a road linking the eastern and western parts of the kingdom at a total cost of three million roubles.

SINO-INDIAN BORDER DISPUTE

LEWIS GEN

AFTER the talks between Indian Premier Nehru and Chinese Premier Chou En-lai in New Delhi, a joint communique was issued, to the effect that the conference had brought about greater understanding between the two governments, but that no settlement had been reached concerning the major points of the Sino-Indian border-dispute. The communique also announced that officials of the two countries were to meet to examine the various documents and records supporting the claims of each side, so that further negotiation might be facilitated. Besides, high-ranking officials of the two governments have been meeting between June and September for further negotiations.

Thus the results of the Chou-Nehru talks may not appear very spectacular, but they represent such success as might have been reasonably expected, considering the nature of the dispute. Except for those elements in India and elsewhere who try hard to sow discord between the two major Asian countries, there are reasons for China and India to remain friends. Quarrelling is profitable to neither, and though the border-dispute tends to embitter feelings, what is actually involved therein is infinitesimal compared with the great good to be derived from friendly relations between these two countries.

Much of the border dispute between China and India has been bequeathed by history, and it is necessary to consider the following three factors:

The whole boundary between China and India along the south and south-west edge of Tibet consists of mountainous regions, over 10,000 feet above sea-level and very sparsely inhabited by tribes who were in the past often left to look after themselves. The governments which claimed sovereignty over these regions never thought it necessary to have the boundary line delimited and demarked.

China used to exercise sovereignty over those border regions through Tibet, which, though part of China, was more or less considered a self-governing territory. So long as the Chinese

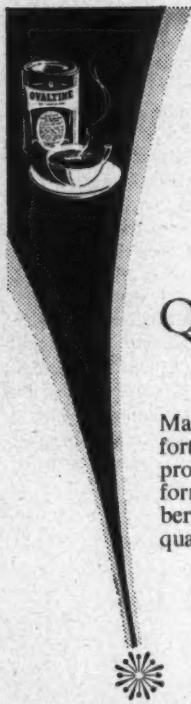
central government remained strong, the external relations of Tibet were conducted by the Chinese Government. When it became impotent, however, the local Government often took affairs into its own hand, and had private dealings with foreign countries, though nominally Tibet was never severed from China. Naturally all Chinese Governments have refused to recognize such dealings.

The long British rule in India did more than anything else in sowing the seed of the Sino-Indian border disputes, especially the 100 years before the World War II. When China's control over Tibet decreased, Britain tried all she could to sever it from China or make it her own special area of influence. She gradually advanced to—or, as Mr. Nehru said, "gradually moved up"—the India-Tibet borders, quietly bit off one piece after another, and finally consolidated them together. After the conquest of Kashmir Britain used that state as a wedge in between Sinkiang and Tibet and pushed hard forward until she encountered a strong resistance from the Russian Tsar.

The Sino-Indian boundary-line is generally divided into three sectors, all of which are under dispute.

The western sector, which lies between Sinkiang, Tibet and Ladakh—known as the area of Aksai Chin, measures 33,000 square kilometres, but is a track of such unprofitable waste land that permanent inhabitants are extremely few, and only some nomads are allured there at certain seasons of the year either by the few pastures or salt mines.

Traditionally the area belonged to China. As early as two hundred years back the Manchu Government had already set up checkposts; and before the Chinese army entered Tibet, Kuomintang troops were to be found there. Nevertheless, the area is fiercely disputed by India, who supports her claims by maps of her own, and the Kashmir-Tibet convention which, however, makes no specific mention of the boundary line at all. This area is now under the firm jurisdiction of China,



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and forms an artery connecting Sinkiang and Tibet, through which Chinese troops and important supplies have been transported into Tibet for the past nine years. Moreover, the Chinese Government in 1956-57 built a motor road from Sinkiang to Tibet, 180 kilometres of which is lying in this area, but it is only since the Sino-Indian border dispute has been brought to the surface that India raised her voice in protest about it. It would appear as if she did not know anything about that road before.

The central sector begins with the Kangka Pass on the South of Aksai Chin, and moves south-eastwards to the junction of the Tibet-Nepal border. But along this sector not the whole line, but only two or three miles are under dispute centred around a few mountain passes.

Soon after the Chinese army entered Tibet, China and India signed a trade agreement which, as is presumed by India, has made the Chinese recognize her as the rightful holder of those passes. On the other hand Chinese contend that the agreement has no effect upon the boundary question, and that they made this point clear from the beginning.

Finally the most controversial part of the line is the East sector which extends from Bhutan to Lower Tsayul and lies between the so-called McMahon line and the southern foot of the Himalayas. The whole area is 90,000 square kilometres and has belonged for many years to China through her sovereignty over Tibet. However, it was gradually absorbed by the Government of British India during the past 100 years. Not being content with *de facto* occupation, the British empire-builders sponsored the Simla Conference in 1914, whose main purpose was to liquidate China's sovereign rights over Tibet and the border regions. But the Chinese repre-

sentative refused to sign the convention, and subsequently the Manchu regime repeatedly declared that this treaty should have no binding effect whatever upon China. Nevertheless, India insists upon the validity of the convention, and thereby claims the big track of territory south of the McMahon line, which, in fact, was attributed to her as a result of a secret deal between the British and Tibet officials in March, 1944. The Manchu government protested against it, but being completely powerless, its protest brought no result. After India became independent, the Nationalist Government under Chiang Kai Shek protested several times against the validity of the arbitrary boundary line; and the Tibetan Local Government, too, asked India for the restitution of such territories on the boundaries to Tibet, that were taken away by the British either by armed force or by quiet incursions. The Indian Government under Mr. Nehru has never accepted any of these claims.

Soon after diplomatic relations were established between China and India, the different conception of the Sino-Indian boundary line was noted by the Indians and questions were raised; but the Chinese leaders who were then busily engaged in other urgent tasks, only replied that the boundary lines on the current maps would be revised later, after actual surveying and consulting with the neighbouring countries concerned. However, the problem was forced into the open soon after the Tibet Rebellion, which directly led to the tightening up of the frontiers, and brought the frontier guards of both countries face to face. Check-posts were established by both sides, and patrolling begun along the whole boundary line. Since the Sino-Indian boundary was never formally delimited and demarcated, quarrels and clashes were bound to rise. Thus, the Indian patrolling parties attempting to enter the Aksai Chin area were disarmed and turned back, and a more serious clash took place around Longju situated North of the so-called McMahon line. Had it not been for the determination of the two Governments not to resort to force for the final settlement, these clashes might well have led to full dress war.

It should be pointed out that, in spite of the fact that China has never recognised the McMahon line, Chinese troops never went beyond it, leaving the regions South of the line well under Indian control. In the West sector the whole area is under Chinese effective jurisdiction. Therefore, so long as the *status quo* is strictly maintained there will be no trouble. Further than this, Mr. Chou En-lai did also suggest for the armed forces of both sides to withdraw 20 kilometres, leaving only civilian staff to carry on their duties. Though Mr. Nehru did not agree to this proposal, he consented to stop armed patrolling in the disputed regions, and this seems quite sufficient to prevent further clashes between the two sides.

The situation seems quite clear. Though China feels very grievous about the McMahon Line, she is willing to respect it pending the settlement through peaceful negotiation. On the other hand Mr. Nehru has declared that India has no intention to oust the Chinese on the West sector with military force, though China is accused of trespassing across the line.

The only way left is to settle the dispute through peaceful talks. Of course, this will take a long time, maybe years; for what was entangled in a whole century can hardly be disentangled in a few days. Meanwhile both sides must exercise restraint, and endeavour to increase mutual understanding and restore a friendly atmosphere, so that a gradual settlement may be made possible.

POPULATION AND NUTRITION IN ASIA

FRANCIS STORY

It was whilst serving a South-East Asia Command medical unit in 1945 that I first came up against one of Asia's major problems. An analysis of hospitalized Indians showed that the wounds of Hindu patients took a much longer time, sometimes in the region of several weeks, to heal than did those of Muslims with similar injuries. As a direct consequence of this, post-operational infection occurred more frequently in the case of the Hindus. Had it not been for modern methods of treatment and asepsis there is no question that the death rate among the Hindus would have been far higher than among the Muslims.

Some of the Muslims attributed this to the greater efficacy of their prayers, but the real cause was easily explainable. The Muslims were meat-eaters, whereas the majority of Hindu soldiers, except the Sikhs, Gurkhas and a few others, were not, and among the latter the incidence of post-operational complications was as low as among the Muslims.

This is only one aspect of the larger problem of food and dietary values that confronts Asia as a whole. Taken together with the steady increase in population, the problem includes dietary deficiencies that lead directly to a lowered resistance to bacterial and virus infections, and actual malnutrition affecting large sections of the population.

Tissue repair and growth depend upon the intake of an adequate supply of proteins, in which the average Asian diet is markedly deficient. Wheat and other cereals contain some protein, but in place of these, rice is the staple food of Asia; and its value as food is reduced by the fact that most of the rice consumed now is well-milled, or 'polished' rice, which is lacking in most of the essentials, including the important element, thiamin (Vitamin B₁) and minerals. The now almost universal consumption of white rice, instead of the parboiled brown rice formerly eaten, is known to be responsible for the widespread occurrence of Beriberi, one of the commonest deficiency diseases of the East, and one that takes a terrible toll of those population groups which combine vegetarianism with a predominantly rice diet.

The 'biological value' of any food is determined by the nature and balance of the various amino-acids in the particular protein it contains. Thus, the chief protein of maize is zein, which is lacking in tryptophane, one of the essential amino-acids. For this reason, people who absorb tryptophane mainly from the vegetable protein of maize are liable to suffer from Pellagra. This is another of the recognised deficiency diseases, and has been experimentally produced by withholding fresh meat, eggs and milk from the diet. Commercial white rice has a similar defect from the nutritional point of view, and gives rise to a marked Vitamin B deficiency where it forms the main article of the diet. The rice-eater may be fleshy and to all appearances well nourished, but he tends to be lacking in energy and resistance to disease. Despite obesity he may in fact be suffering from chronic malnutrition.

In some countries attempts are being made to return to the wholesome brown rice which was once the basic food, but considerable difficulty is being encountered. Not only has the standardized commercial product become popular from a mistaken belief in its superiority, but modern requirements

in the way of distribution call for the less perishable form, so that in most parts of Asia the better type of rice is now almost impossible to obtain even in the rice-growing regions. The over-processed and de-natured white rice, often treated with talc to give it an attractive appearance, has become universal.

In 1950 the population of India was seen to be increasing at the rate of approximately 6 million per year, which in terms of food means an additional annual requirement of 1 million tons. The minimal protein requirement for an adult is in the region of one-half gram per kilogram of body weight per day, and is more in the case of expectant mothers, children and adolescents (about four times as much in the case of infants). One of the chief difficulties that face the Asian nutritional experts is the problem of where the extra proteins are to be obtained from, on a standard of living that is already badly deficient in that respect. The problem is most acute in the case of vegetarian population groups, for fruits and vegetables contain very little protein and have to be consumed in large quantities to yield the necessary minimal requirement. And in fact the cost of fruit and good quality vegetables in most parts of Asia, particularly in the capitals, is so high that they are used by the great mass of the people more as sauces for flavouring than as substantial items of food. If the vegetables were eaten uncooked they would retain more of their nutritious value, but raw vegetables in the tropics are a potent cause of amoebic dysentery and other bowel and intestinal disorders.

The theoretical formula that allots one acre of land to every person in the world, while estimating that the meat-eater requires two, is quite unsupported by any evidence. Climatic conditions, nature of the soil, fluctuating nutritional needs and other incalculable factors make any attempt to assess the needs of an individual in terms of land measurement completely valueless. When applied to the nutritional needs of Asians it is dangerously misleading because of this lack of balance in protein content. Proteins are obtainable from gram, nuts and dairy produce, but in many parts of Asia the last, because of the feeling against consuming animal products in any form, are either hard to get or else prejudice prevents full use being made of them. In the case of milk, a most valuable article of diet, there is some reason for the prejudice. Unhygienic conditions of production and distribution often make it a source of danger rather than of benefit, and have been in the past one of the principal reasons for the spread of tuberculosis.

Most Asian governments are now making efforts to raise the hygienic standards of milk production and distribution; but even in Ceylon, where the problem is being tackled with a certain degree of efficiency, the level is still well below what is needed to improve the situation. There appears to be no effective supervision of the Milk Board distribution centres, many of which are in private houses where there is not even a refrigerator and the surroundings would certainly not satisfy any conscientious inspector of sanitation. If there are any regulations covering precautions against tubercular infection from those handling the milk it is difficult to see how they could be enforced in the circumstances.

The only dairy product that is at all extensively used in India is ghee, and this, together with gram, represents the vegetarian Indian's chief, if not sole, source of protein. But the capacity for ingesting ghee and gram is limited, and if, through bad liver conditions, common in India, fats in large quantities cannot be absorbed, the only source of protein left is gram and the small proportions found in pulses, vegetables and fruits. Herbivorous animals spend most of their waking life eating and re-masticating, which a human being cannot do, and to consume these items in the full quantity required to avoid protein deficiency is a practical impossibility, leaving aside the economic factors already noted. To suggest that the average Asian, whose standard of living is far below that of most European countries, can make up his dietary deficiencies by eating cheese omelettes and fruit is equivalent to the advice given to the French peasantry at the beginning of the revolution, to eat cake if they could not get bread.

In India pasturage is of very poor quality owing to denudation of the soil and drought, whilst even in those areas of Asia where pasturage is good, to breed cattle solely for dairy produce is not economically practicable. To make milk products plentiful enough, large areas of land would have to be set aside for grazing, and this would have an adverse effect on the production of rice and vegetables. There would then remain the problem of how to dispose of the surplus cattle that were no longer productive. At present the price of cheese is prohibitive for most people because all cheese has to be imported; and Asian eggs, while they are as costly as those obtainable in Europe, average only half the size. There remains only fish as a source of animal protein, and in inland areas this is available only in fried form, suitable to be used in minute quantities for flavouring curries. Among vegetarian communities that are genuinely averse to the taking of life, and do not regard fish as vegetables, even this is prohibited. And it is by no means certain that fish preserved by drying as it is done in the East is a desirable item of food, taken as a regular part of the diet.

I have had many opportunities of studying the Asian food problem at close quarters, including a practical experiment of living for 12 months in a Hindu vegetarian community near Benares in 1948. From that I gained direct personal experience of the deterioration in health that results from a diet of white rice, dhal, vegetable curry and small quantities of coconut and plantains. This represented the average diet of the majority of the people in that area, and was typical of the diet of rural Hindu low-income groups in general. It was occasionally supplemented with curd, but rarely because of the low milk yield of the local cows; and other than plantains there was no fruit available that was worth the trouble of eating. Oranges were small and juiceless, consisting mostly of tough fibre. Eggs were obtainable, but they were undersized, and in any case their consumption was frowned upon. Apart from the lack of food value, the tastelessness and monotony of the diet reduced appetite to a minimum. At the same time, in the Benares bazaars meat of good quality was on sale in the Muslim shops, and, compared value for value was much cheaper than the fruit and vegetables. The European vegetarian diet that includes cream, honey, fresh, uncooked vegetables and wholemeal bread, with plentiful supplies of fruit and nut products, was as far removed from these people as the ambrosia of Vedic tradition. The situation could have been improved slightly had there been more consumption of wheat *chapatties* and *roti* in place of the ubiquitous white rice; but rice was cheaper and more 'filling'. I found, also, that wheat products

were regarded with distrust by those not accustomed to eating them, as being 'heating'.

In addition to religious prohibitions, the uneducated Hindu mind is filled with a variety of other prejudices in the matter of eating, all of which tend to restrict diets and cause a dangerous lack of balance in vitamin and mineral content. Habit is so strong in many groups that there are still people who in times of shortage will go hungry rather than eat a food to which they have not been accustomed from childhood, or which has been prepared in some unfamiliar way. Also, the debilitating habit of fasting is widespread, from the belief that it is a cure for all sicknesses.

Later I was able to compare the standards of India with those prevailing in Burma, Thailand, Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam, where the people are more or less free from gastro-nomic inhibitions. There, Chinese influence in the choice and manner of preparing food produce a heterogeneous diet that includes meat, pork (well cooked to destroy *trichinella spiralis*), fish and several varieties of crustacea. My observations verified the findings of the dieticians. Although the same problems of nutrition exist for them as for India in that their basic white rice diet is the same and they also suffer from an insufficiency of dairy produce, they are on the whole better nourished, and have more stamina, than vegetarian Hindus of corresponding income-levels. The contrast shows itself particularly in the case of the children. They may not be well nourished by European standards, but it is rare to find, in Burma and the Indo-China areas, the pitifully emaciated, pot-bellied children so distressingly common all over India. By a more liberal approach to the question of diet and a more realistic adjustment to the needs of their situation they have succeeded in counteracting many of the more disastrous effects of Asian malnutrition.

Further proof of this is to be found in Burma, where thousands of people are living in conditions of overcrowding and primitive sanitation which in India would cause serious epidemics, yet they contrive to maintain a general standard of health that is far above that of the sub-continent, and outbreaks of epidemic diseases are comparatively rare. The explanation lies solely in the resistance to infection that a balanced and adequate diet ensures. In Burma, where meat, eggs, fish and poultry are consumed by all classes, the average diet is sufficiently rich in proteins, calcium, iron and other items necessary for body-maintenance and resistance to disease.

The moral of this for Asia as a whole, however, has not yet entered the consciousness of the people, and it will be some time before education can bring about the desired results. To those who are interested in human beings only as political cattle, the facts may not appear of great importance. But as a continuing situation the problem of nutrition is one of increasing gravity, and those who are most deeply concerned for the welfare of the Asian peoples are now beginning to fear its implications for the future. Health authorities in India are urging a radical change in the dietary habits of the people, including more consumption of animal products, as a means of combating the menace of denatured foods and restoring nutritional balance. It is a problem that, as I have indicated, has to be worked out on various levels; economic, medical, educational and religious. But before this can be done, one principle must be accepted at the outset, so far as Hindu India is concerned. It is that the health of millions of human children is of more importance in the scale of things than the fanatical adherence to religious or other ideals which, by their nature, can never be realised in full.

AUSTRALIA'S RECORD IN NEW GUINEA

HARRY TAPERELL

AUSTRALIA presented a record of achievement, backed by more than half a century of territorial government in adjoining Papua; when her administration of the 93,000 square-mile Territory of New Guinea was examined by the Trusteeship Council in New York in May 1960.

The record showed that substantial progress had been made in promoting the political, economic, social and educational advancement of the 1,360,639 indigenous inhabitants of New Guinea and in leading them to do more in the development and administration of their own country, with the ultimate objective of self-government. The groundwork for this eventual goal has been firmly laid, with the establishment of native local government councils throughout the Territory; by encouragement given to indigenous inhabitants to serve alongside Europeans on Town and District Councils; and by the appointment of three native people to the law-making, 29-member Legislative Council.

These developments prompted the visiting United Nations mission, in 1959, to commend the Territory Administration "for the continuing rapid expansion of local government councils which signifies a forward step in the political advancement of the people".

In the ten years, ended June 30, 1959, the number of local government councils had grown from three serving 9,400 people in 51 villages, to 20 councils serving 147,000 people in 843 villages. Whereas in 1950 there were only 53 councillors, at the end of June 1959 there were 545. The next step will be the formation of regional councils, when sufficient local government councils have been established in each district and as community interests become more and more integrated over a wide area.

Local Government Councils

The unit of native society is the village. First approaches to political education, therefore, have been through the villages, working upwards from village level to evolve a series of democratically constituted local government bodies handling their own affairs. Under the guidance of Administration officers, native local government councils have developed executive ability and are taking more and more initiative in the management of local affairs.

The councils operate with funds which they raise themselves, and supplement the civic services provided by the Administration. They hold substantial assets in the form of buildings, workshops, motor vehicles and other equipment and are playing an active part in such matters as the provision of public health and medical facilities; the improvement of local water supplies; education, including the erection of school buildings; the maintenance of roads; rural settlement; control of hygiene and sanitation; and the registration of births, deaths and marriages. They have assisted greatly in raising the social and economic standards of their community, and have given to the people a feeling of pride and confidence in their own advancement.

The local government system has produced a body of candidates for higher political service, and as suitable numbers become available throughout the Territory, indigenous representation on the Legislative Council will be increased and the

selection of members given a more widely representative character. However, there are many obstacles as yet to complete native representation at territorial level, and a Territory-wide franchise is not in prospect for some years to come.

Because of the rugged nature of this tropical country, with mountain peaks rising to 15,400 feet, torrential rivers and vast swamp areas hindering communication between native peoples in the past and presenting formidable barriers to transport now, interest in self-government has been confined largely, up to the present, to local bodies. Indeed, the forbidding terrain separating native villages, the vast differences in tribal culture and social organisations and the multiplicity of tongues—approximately 350 dialects are spoken in New Guinea—have militated against rapid progress not only in the political field but in all spheres of activity.

Meanwhile, as a means of promoting an understanding of the machinery of central government, indigenous observers are appointed to attend meetings of the Legislative Council. These are in addition to the three full-time members of the Council.

Education

The emphasis placed upon political advancement has been paralleled by the importance attached to education and to the teaching of English to provide a common tongue and a Territory-wide sense of community as the first essential to political structure.

The strides made in education are shown by the growth of Administration schools from 50 in 1950 to 189 in 1959, the number of pupils from 2,827 to 12,517 and of teachers from 126 to 543. Native teachers in Administration schools increased from 80 to 404 during the same period. The Christian Missions play a large part in the educational field and the Administration supervises them and assists them financially in their work. In 1959, there were 2,777 mission schools with 112,142 pupils. Expenditure on education by both Administration and Missions in New Guinea in 1958-59 totalled approximately £A 1,600,000.

As standards of education have risen, increasing opportunities have been opened to the indigenous population to assist in the advancement of their own people and in the development of the resources of the Territory. The Public

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A mother and baby receiving attention while convalescing in the native hospital at Ming, Western Highlands, New Guinea.

Service is open to them, and in June 1959 more than 50 were members of the Auxiliary Division, a special training division which prepares indigenous officers for positions of greater complexity and responsibility.

Economy

The economy of the Territory is essentially based upon primary production, exports of which have a ready market in Australia. Principal industries are agriculture, timber and mining. Manufacturing, although on a small scale at present, is increasing. Copra is the chief crop; cocoa and coffee are also of major importance.

Under the guidance of the administering authority, which accords high priority to the agricultural element of the economy, more and more natives are producing cash crops, some as individual operators and approximately 51,000 (in 1958-59) as members of cooperative societies. There were more than 100 cooperative societies in the Territory in 1959, with a combined capital of £250,000. Native planters were growing more than one-quarter of the total production of copra, cocoa and coffee.

Exports of copra and coconut products increased from 32,296 tons valued at £A 1,500,000 in 1948-49 to 78,816 tons valued at £A 7,400,000 in 1958-59. Over the same period, coffee exports rose from 16 tons valued at £A 3,499 to 950 tons (£A 448,869) and cocoa exports from 200 tons (£A 36,413) to 4,182 tons (approximately £A 1,500,000). The value of timber products exports rose from £A 21,523 to more than £A 1,300,000. The total value of trade in the Territory

increased from £A 7,596,130 in 1948-49 to £A 24,510,469 in 1958-59.

Government expenditure rose steadily from £A 2,593,304 in 1948-49 to more than £A 10,500,000 in 1958-59. Of the latter amount, the Australian Government contributed £A 6,700,000, the remainder having been raised by local revenue.

Medicine and Hygiene

All forms of medical services have been established, from medical aid posts serving groups of villages throughout the Territory to base and special treatment hospitals in the coastal towns and settled areas. In 1959, there were 143 hospitals, 363 maternity and child welfare centres including mobile clinic centres, and 1,202 aid posts or medical centres.

A number of New Guinea students have been, and are being trained at the Central Medical School at Suva, Fiji. Undergoing training at various establishments in New Guinea in 1959 were 80 male and female nurses, 175 aid post orderlies, 883 medical orderlies and 101 infant and maternal welfare assistants and orderlies.

Area Under Control

A measure of the post-war advancement achieved in the Trust Territory is the fact that except for a few isolated pockets, there is no part of New Guinea that has not been penetrated by Administration patrols. 78,745 of the total area of 93,000 square miles are under Administration control and 9,040 square miles under "influence". Only about 5 per cent of the area have not received attention beyond the first stage of "penetration by patrols". Modern transport and means of communication have changed the pattern of pre-war patrolling. Jeeps, aircraft for reconnaissance and for dropping supplies and equipment, radio and a network of roads facilitate the work of the Administration. Nevertheless, continued ground patrolling is still necessary to preserve friendly relations and understanding with geographically isolated tribes.

The Pacific war brought a closer identification of Australia with New Guinea and a deeper feeling of responsibility for the care and advancement of a people whose country had become a battleground and who suffered the tangible and intangible effects of invasion. Nearly all centres of European settlement, and most of the material signs of development, were destroyed before the fighting ceased.

During the post-war period, more than £A 66 million had been expended by the Territorial Administration in the administration and development of the Territory. Of this amount £A 44 million had been contributed by the Australian Government by way of direct grants, apart from other forms of assistance.

When peace came, Australia voluntarily placed the former mandated Territory of New Guinea under the United Nations as a trust Territory and in December 1946 was made the administering authority. New Guinea is now linked with the sovereign Territory of Papua in an administrative union, with common administrative machinery.

The social, economic and political advancement of the people of New Guinea will need Australian help for many years to come. With the accent upon local government and the extension of education and health services, the people of New Guinea are rapidly progressing towards a higher standard of living, the ability to cope with the important changes that are occurring, and towards the creation of common bonds despite tribal differences—pre-requisites to democratic self-government.

Tokyo: Aspects of Pleasure (2)

SUMO

ETHEL MANNIN

WHEN I had said I would be interested to see Japanese wrestling, having seen an interesting demonstration of *Judo* in Brittany, I had known nothing about *sumo* (pronounced 'smo') so various Japanese friends assumed that this was what I meant. By the time it was clear that what I meant was *jujitsu* and not this heavyweight horror, it was too late, the tickets had been bought. Besides, the *sumo* tournaments were in full swing, and no one knew where there was any *judo*, or maybe it was not the season; anyhow it wasn't available, and *sumo* was, and to it I was taken. The great *Kokugikan* in Tokyo, where the tournaments were held, seated 16,000 people, and the place was always packed. It was very impressive. It went on all day, but I should choose a time when the matches between the famous champions were being held.

The taxi could not get anywhere near the *kokugikan* as a dense mass of traffic was converging on it; indeed the matches had been in progress for some hours but it was then close to the championship time. My Japanese friend and I finally reached the building on foot and passed into it with a solid block of people. Our seats were in the steep circle which encircles the vast hall. The ring looks like a huge four-poster bed far down below in the centre of the floor. The matches take place on a low platform under a handsome canopy supported by four posts and topped by an ornate gabled roof, rather like a shrine. The ring itself is only 12 feet in diameter.

Professional *sumo* players are giants of 17 stone and more; some are reputedly 25 stone, and seeing them it is possible to believe it. They are taller than the average Japanese, some of them six-foot or more. As they wear their hair long, in the traditional manner—*sumo* is of extremely ancient origin—in topknots, and as many of them have pronounced breasts, the first impression is of monstrous women. Their colossal bulk is largely produced by diet, but it is also believed to be in some cases glandular—a matter of acromegaly. In *sumo* it is weight that counts. They appear in the ring almost naked, wearing only the sketchiest of loin-cloths, with a mere band of the material passing between the buttocks. They wear also a kind of skirt or fringe of what looks like porcupine quills, but this is apt to come unhitched and be whisked away by the referee when the wrestling begins, or become so disarranged as to seem no more than a few extraneous quills.

Before the contests between the renown champions there is a parade, rather like that preceding a bullfight, in which the giants wear their badges of honour—richly embroidered ceremonial aprons of velvet and damask; there is even a sword carried upright—a relic, perhaps, of the days when *sumo* was part of the training of the *samurai*.

A quasi-religious ritual precedes each match; there is the throwing of salt for purification, the rinsing of the mouth, the taking of the vow to play fair, with various arm and leg movements, like a posturing dance. After a bout of matches, a few of the champions appear in the ring, one after another, wearing their ceremonial aprons, clapping their hands and

stamping their feet in a traditional performance called *dohyo-iri*, meaning ring entry.

After the salt-throwing the contestants squat opposite each other with their hands on the ground, their enormous rumps stuck out, watching each other; they must rise at the same moment for the attack. If one makes a false start before the other is ready the whole ritual of mouth-rising, salt-throwing, and the rest of it, has to be gone through all over again. Sometimes the squatting and watching takes so long that the audience becomes impatient and yells to the contestants to start; five minutes is the maximum time allowed by the referee—though in the old days it could go on for 30 or 40 minutes. The sudden spring into action is startling, no matter how closely one watches, and equally startling is the rapidity with which it is all over—a matter of seconds, for the most part. There is the sudden spring, the clinching, then in a few seconds one of the contestants is tripped, or thrown bodily into the audience—or anyhow pitched overboard. I saw a boy of 19—according to the programme—so fat as to look 50, just picked up by a tall muscular man of 35 (one of the very few who were not fat but muscular) as though he were a fat kicking infant and dumped over the side of the platform—to the huge delight of the audience.

The more interesting contests were those in which there were long interlockings, each man straining to keep his feet against the fearful pressure of the gigantic bulk opposing him. A sudden swift tripping movement would end the match with one of the giants on the floor. The rule of the game is that no part of the contestants' person other than the feet may touch the floor even momentarily; there is thus no question of being down for the count; down is out. The winner always assists the vanquished to his feet, and the vanquished always bows to the victor when he leaves the ring.

The referees wear long ceremonial robes and high conical caps—one with a long false-looking white beard looked oddly like a Father Christmas. Their business is to announce the names of the contestants before each match and to see fair play. Between each match there is a poster parade for various commercial products, for the matches are sponsored by business firms, who put up the prize money. Any young man aspiring to a career as a *sumo* wrestler must first find a backer.

A good deal of eating goes on among the audience; attendants pass up and down continuously with bottles of beer, and rice-boxes into which complete meals are packed. Whole parties camp out in cubicles all over the floor of the hall behind the ringside seats where the *élite* sit on chairs. There is a continuous coming and going, a continuous shouting, a glare of white lights, bursts of laughter, rounds of applause (much, much more applause than at a *kabuki* performance) cries of encouragement or derision, and the shrill cries of those who hawk food and drink.

It is interesting; it is impressive, but like *kabuki* it goes on for a very long time, and is repetitive. Coming out into the squalid streets which surround the *Kokugikan* I felt I was glad to have seen it but that once was enough.

ASIAN SURVEY

SINGAPORE'S FINANCIAL REQUIREMENTS

From a Correspondent in Singapore

SINGAPORE is to get only one-fifteenth of what she wanted in the way of a loan from the UK to finance her Five-Year Development Plan. In other words, she will get M\$43 million instead of M\$958 million, although Dr. Goh Keng Swee, Singapore's Finance Minister, who went to London to negotiate with the British Government, said that the loan covered the first three years of the plan and he would return later to ask for more. Dr. Goh also hopes to obtain help from the World Bank in the United States. The actual details of the development plan have not yet been disclosed but it is known that it covers the following: electric power; improvements to existing port facilities; land reclamation; provision of an industrial site; housing; the establishment of a new Industrial Development Board and other social projects, such as rural development, education, health, and so on.

Dr. Goh was more successful in asking for an outright grant of money. When visiting London last year, Dr. Goh asked for M\$14 million for the expansion of Singapore's international airport, and this year M\$6.4 million were granted. He wanted M\$14 million to cover the cost of running Singapore's local defence force, and he got nearly all of it (M\$13.9 million). In addition, he was given, unasked, a bonus of M\$2.1 million towards technical assistance.

Dr. Goh's failure to obtain a loan from the UK—for it amounts to this—raises an interesting question of whether an approach will now be made to the Soviet Union or China. Reports have already appeared in the British and American press that Singapore might turn to Russia or China for aid if necessary. The idea was first mooted by Dr. Toh Chin Chye, Singapore's Deputy Prime Minister, last November when he attended the Colombo Plan Conference in Indonesia. The matter was again raised by two Russian representatives who attended an industrial conference in Singapore in March sponsored by the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East. In fact, the frequent presence of the Russian delegates in and around government offices in Empress Place became the subject of much sensational gossip among the

clerks there. It is a pity that the Government did not see fit to issue an official statement on what it was all about. The Prime Minister of the Federation of Malaya, Tunku Abdul Rahman, as it happens, was the first official to advert publicly to the Russians in Singapore when he expressed surprise at the silence of the Singapore press regarding the presence of what he described as a "Communist Trade Mission" there. Mr. S. Rajaratnam, Singapore's Minister for Culture, promptly denied the presence of any such mission although it is difficult to see how the Minister for Culture could speak for the Singapore Government on such a matter. Now Tunku Abdul Rahman has been proved correct. What is more, it now transpires that he refused the Russians permission to visit the Federation of Malaya. Nothing apparently came of a proposal made by the Russians to the Singapore Government that they should be allowed to open an office in Singapore.

The news of the failure of Dr. Goh's mission to London was played down in the local press, presumably for fear that it might have some influence on the course of events following the split in the People's Action Party (PAP) which led to the expulsion of Mr. Ong Eng Guan, erstwhile Minister for National Development, from his ministership and the party.

Australia

Some Weaknesses in Policies and Economic Outlook

From Charles Meeking, Canberra

Most of Australia's 10½ million people are enjoying unprecedented prosperity. Unemployment is negligible, land prices in the cities are at record levels, the building of factories, offices and homes is booming. The creation of a class of "little capitalists" is having economic, social and political effects of some magnitude; it is also tending to obscure for many Australians the grimmer possibilities inherent in some internal and external policies and certain weaknesses in the economy.

There are degrees of irresponsibility. Both the Menzies Government and its Labour Opposition are ignoring some problems but really trying to grapple with others. The business community is showing greater awareness of the impact of world events and trends, and in some sectors there is serious, informed and critical public discussion of policies which only a few years ago were given little consideration.

Asian opinions on the immigration restriction policy are being discussed as much as the lessons, if any, to be learned from happenings in Africa and the United States. The growing shadow of China is being studied and new conceptions of defence are being mentioned. New Guinea is being recognised

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as Australia's major and continuing problem, an issue important in itself and of crucial significance in Australia's relations with Asia.

The economic weaknesses may have the most direct effects, although there is no immediate reason to fear what is called in modern jargon a "recession". Yet the pressures of internal costs are increasing to an extent which threatens a new wave of inflation and prejudices the drive for export markets in Asia and Europe against world competition. At the same time, with wool always having the dominant role in exports, the drift in wool prices continues (it has averaged 5 per cent a year since 1954), the production of wool is expected to be down by 4 per cent in volume in 1960-1, and shipping freight charges for wool will rise by 5 per cent in the next season.

Against this background there are studies on development of an Asian market for wool (in addition to the present heavy buyers, Japan and China), and on the effects on Australia of EEC.

Some economists believe that China's "limitless demand for wool" may ultimately force Australian recognition of Peking, in advance of any United States move in the same direction after the US Presidential election. This subject, however, is of less immediate importance than the impact of the European Common Market on Australian markets in Europe and the present British links with EFTA which have recently involved the waiving by Australia of preferences on nine products under the trade agreement with Britain.

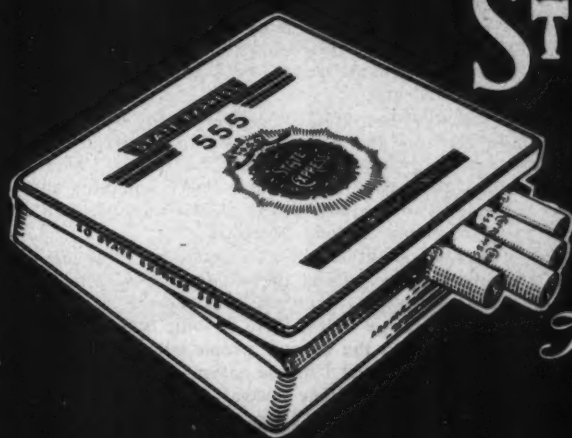
The concern which producers are showing at these trends, so far on commodities of little importance, is not being allayed by the Government's reluctance to disclose or even discuss

many of the implications, both in trade and in ensuring peace and political maturity in Europe.

Asia, of course, remains Australia's best long-term trade objective—if Asian standards rise sufficiently for adequate returns. Yet the political parties stubbornly refuse to recognise Asian resentment at the restriction of immigration into Australia (the Prime Minister, Mr. Menzies, said in July that his views on the subject were "unaltered and unalterable"). "Undiplomatic" but forceful statements on the subject were made recently by two top-ranking diplomats accredited to Canberra—the Japanese Ambassador, Mr. Katsushiro Narita, and the High Commissioner for Ceylon, Mr. B. F. Perera.

Mr. Narita said an Australian policy admitting a percentage of Asians would lead to better understanding and aid development. He believed a quota would not lower living standards. Then he added the significant words: "In the long run, the problem of countries like Japan, with small areas and huge populations, will depend on being able to move peacefully into other areas."

This stirred Canberra somewhat, but there was no direct official comment either, except from the Leader of the Opposition, Mr. A. A. Calwell, on Mr. Perera's warning that Australia could not afford to remain static with its "White Australia" policy in the face of growing world awareness of basic human rights. The High Commissioner said every country had an inherent right to make laws to determine the composition of all nationalities in its population, but in the exercise of those rights no country should practise any discrimination, express or implied, against any section of the world community. He admitted that Ceylon had immigration laws, but these did not involve discrimination by race or



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colour, "we apply the one standard—is the applicant able to play a useful role in the community and be a good citizen?"

An organisation known as the "Australian Natives' Association" suggested that Mr. Perera was preaching racial hatred where none existed, and that Mr. Narita should be told that the limit of population in Australia was likely to be 30 million, and that changes in the immigration laws would be of little value to either Asia or Australia.

These exchanges occurred after a group of Melbourne University graduates had issued a strong plea for a changed policy, firstly because Asians were needed to enrich the Australian culture and understanding of Asians, and secondly because the policy was having "a disastrous effect" on non-European opinion. The group considered it would be a poor advertisement for Australia, which now admitted so many Asians for study or business, to say that non-whites were excluded because Australians would be unable to live peacefully with them.

Soon after Mr. Menzies' statement, the Minister for Immigration, Mr. Alex. Downer, gave a comprehensive survey of the Government's position on the subject (during which he mentioned, incidentally, that one of the major effects of the large continental European content of immigration to Australia would inevitably be a lessening of ties with Britain). There was now, he said, an orientation of thought about Asia to a degree previously unknown in Australia, which was a necessary development. However, with the exception of a fractional percentage, Australia's population, racial origins, religion and ideas were European. Mr. Downer asked: "Does the wisdom of attuning our minds to Asian ideas and requirements imply that our future lies with Asia, that Australia is an Asian country, that sooner or later to the unbroken stream of peoples pouring in from Europe there must be added a flow from Asia?"

He declared that part of Australia's destiny might well be with Asia, and if so, she had to fulfil it spiritually, unselfishly and with shining enlightenment. "But the essence of our role will be that of a rather novel interpreter of Anglo-European ideas, institutions and a manner of life; and likewise in reverse, between Asia and Europe." He suggested that the experience of countries which had tried racial intermixture was not encouraging, and that there was a strong possibility that an inflow of Asians would "defeat the object of our foreign policy towards our Asian friends".

"Instead of relieving misunderstanding it would provoke tensions; it would create internal social problems . . . These in time would engender animosities . . . from Arabia to Japan.

"Instead of enabling us to fulfil our mission, it could prevent us from carrying it out. The growing interest and under-

standing of our Asian neighbours might well become stunted by intolerance and bitterness."

Mr. Downer is a persuasive speaker, and a youngish Cabinet Minister (from South Australia) with considerable ambition. This statement, therefore, produced a great impact, and was widely supported, although there were several pockets of criticism. It remains to be seen what effect, if any, these most recent developments have on public opinion, which has been steadily changing in recent years to majority approval for the admission of some Asians. In the meantime, as Mr. Menzies indicated, there will be no change of policy.

Hong Kong

Democracy or Police State?

From our Hong Kong Correspondent

Hong Kong is a colony, and the essential feature of its government is that the Legislature is entirely under the control of the Governor through the majority of its official members over the minority of the appointed non-official members. Public opinion reflected in the local Press is the only thing that may serve as a kind of check, when the government is not determined to have its own way. This is well illustrated by the football pool scheme (*Eastern World*, August 1960, p. 23) that was recently abandoned on account of the unanimous opposition of the whole Chinese community, and by the new registration of persons that is now proceeding against the strong criticism in the local Press.

In the Registration of Person Ordinance one of the most resented provisions is that any registration officer, or police officer "may, without warrant, enter and search any premises, stop and search any vessel, vehicle or individual, whether in public place or not; and who may also, without warrant, arrest any person if the person is believed to have committed an offence against the Ordinance or the Regulations". Really this would sound very strange in any democratic country.

The second point makes the Chinese people feel no less apprehensive and grievous, for it provides that any person who leaves Hong Kong (mostly for Canton and Macau) for more than one month must report to the Registration Office both before his departure and after return. What is more odious, any registration officer "may summon any person before him and require him to answer any question which he may reasonably consider necessary".

The third point that hurts much the pride of the local Chinese is the provision that those Chinese who were born in Hong Kong must claim British nationality. This step seems to be very unwise unless there is some other ulterior motive. For by tradition the Chinese people who were born in Hong Kong still keep their Chinese nationality, though in fact they are already under some special obligations concerning the Emergency Ordinance. There are some native-born Chinese who may have no objection to becoming British nationals, but the overwhelming majority are rather proud of their Chinese nationality. Therefore, if the authorities overlook the sentiment of the Chinese community on this point and persist in their efforts this controversy is likely to cause a prolonged friction between the Government and the local Chinese, and to produce a deep and bitter effect upon the mind of the Chinese people.

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Recent Books

Textile Designs of Japan (Vol. 1) (Osaka: Japan Textile Color Design Centre).

This elegant and beautifully produced volume is the first in a series covering the whole of Japanese textile design from earliest known examples to the present day. The present volume is concerned with designs in "free style", based mainly on traditional themes and motifs.

Due mainly to her geographical position, Japan had no large-scale cultural exchanges with other countries, such as took place on the larger land masses through the migration of peoples. Her main cultural influences, until the advent of the European traders in the 16th Century and Europe generally after the Meiji Restoration, stemmed of course from China. Nevertheless, these imported elements, which reached their height during the 7th and 8th centuries, were assimilated and developed into something that could be recognized as essentially Japanese. This is particularly true of Japanese textile designs which show the gradual evolution from purely Chinese motifs and treatment of natural subjects to more delicate colours and graceful designs. During the Nara period women's costumes, hitherto modelled on T'ang robes, gradually changed, and consisted of many layers of pale coloured garments with long flowing sleeves. This style of dress did not require vivid colours and strong patterns, and so the designs of the textiles tended to become smaller and simpler—more "poetic" in fact, and the themes were based not on mythical dragons and powerful lions but on naturalistic portrayals of birds, insects or flowers.

The striking thing about Japanese textiles, and one which the European may find difficult to appreciate at first, is the use of two or even three techniques to achieve the desired result. The fabric may be a damask-type weave, with a tie-dyed design, coupled with embroidery, on it. In examples where a naturalistic pattern of leaves or flowers is superimposed on a vivid dyed or woven geometrical background the effect is at once vivid yet harmonious. Japan has often been castigated for her almost uncanny skill in copying the designs of others, here, however, is a field of craftsmanship which could be studied with immense profit by our own textile designers.

This superb book should certainly be in the library of every art school—for the general reader with a desire to understand more of Japanese art, there could be no better introduction.



Illustration from *Sesshu* (Kodansha Library of Japanese Art published in English by Charles E. Tuttle. Distributed by Mark Paterson, 10s. 6d.) A pictorial rendition of a Zen tenet, that man can attain enlightenment only in sudden flashes, in moments of "exaltation".

A.I.R. Miscellany (Delhi: Government of India Publications Division, Rs. 2.75).

This selection of English talks and features broadcast by All India Radio during 1959, contains contributions by experts like Verrier Elwin who in his talk on Indian Tribal Myths ends with a plea for these stories to be taken down and recorded in the language of the tribes people themselves, so that tribal boys and girls, when they come into the general tide of civilisation, will learn not to despise their old traditions.

Satyajit Ray gives a racy description of the difficulties which confront the film maker, and comes to the conclusion that film making is as much an art as it is an industry and the director who best blends the two aspects comes out best. Other talks cover many sides of Indian life and culture. Political controversy is carefully eschewed, and the general impression is that All India Radio acts as a cautious dispenser of culture to its listeners.

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In the contribution headed “This I Believe” Mr. Mehta puts his views on a personal philosophy. He puts peace of mind foremost—and his down to earth attitude towards right conduct and cultivating a sense of proportion about life in general and a sense of humour to go with it make one feel that he is not only a successful man but a thoroughly happy one.

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Economics and Trade

INDIA'S THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN

K. P. GHOSH

A BROAD framework of India's economic activities for the next five years, *Third Five-Year Plan: A Draft Outline, 1961-66*, the result of studies carried over some 18 months, was published in New Delhi early in July, to serve as a discussion basis for all sections of public opinion. The Draft Outline, prepared by the Planning Commission with the assistance of the Union and States ministries and many other organisations in the country, was considered and approved by the National Development Council and the Cabinet before publication. It not only sets out the physical targets and social advances to be achieved in the five years of the Plan, but is further conceived as the basis for a self-accelerating economy providing "social and economic objectives and perspective growth over the next 15 years". This ambitious Draft Outline undoubtedly deserves attention outside India too.

The main objectives of the Plan are: (1) to secure a rise in national income of over 5 per cent per annum; (2) to achieve self-sufficiency in food grains; (3) to expand basic industries such as fuel and power, steel and machine-building capacity; (4) to expand employment opportunities, and (5) to reduce inequalities in income and wealth. Priorities have been accorded to agriculture, basic industries, power and transport with a view to an accelerated growth of the economy. "At all times," says the Planning Commission, "agriculture and industry must be regarded as an integral part of the same process."

Total investment under the Plan is set at Rs. 102,000 million (£10,650 million). Of this Rs. 62,000 million (£7,650 million) will be in the public sector and Rs. 40,000 (£3,000 million) in the private sector. The investment allocation is based on the assumption that Rs. 21,000 million (£1,600 million) will be available from external sources. This projected total investment is to rise year by year, from the current annual rate of Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 25,000 million by the last year of the Third Plan.

India's planning efforts have earned the praise of both East and West. India is literally hoisting herself by her own petard, with skill and inventiveness. In the past ten years India has covered ground that earlier industrial countries took more than double the time to do. For the Third Plan period Indian productivity is to rise at an average rate of 5 to 6 per cent annually, which is nearly twice that of Britain or America, and roughly half that of the Soviet or East German rate of productivity. At a steady rate of 6 per cent per annum, even if a higher rate were not aimed at in subsequent plans, India would in 20 years' time take fourth place among the leading industrial countries of the world.

But productivity figures alone are not a sufficient guide for the progressive rise in the Indian economic level. There is also a qualitative advance. Though tea, jute and other agricultural commodities are still the chief Indian exports, there has been a start with sales of sewing machines to America, bicycles to the United Kingdom, and diesel engines to West Germany. Before the last war India produced not even needles or safety-pins, but today she is sixth among the countries developing atomic energy. Middle-class Indian youths are entering factories and shops; private capital is no longer shy of risk investment. Even before the end of the Second Five-Year Plan (March 1961), India has progressed, to use Mr. Nehru's own description, from the go-cart stage of

economy to the bicycle and the jet age simultaneously.

Economic progress in India has to contend with a rapidly rising population. According to the latest estimate, the population by 1965 will reach 480 million rather than the 434 million assumed in the Second Plan. By 1971 India will have a population of 528 million. This accelerated growth of population calls for a still faster acceleration in economy if any advance is to be made in the standard of living. This task is made more complex by the totally unfettered democracy of India, where numerous economic interests and classes do battle for their narrow, sectional gains. Planning has to be worked out and carried through in the teeth of constant opposition from the political parties and vested interests. Yet the Government and the Planning Commission have to work on the basis of a national consensus of opinion as to what the people must have and must pay for.

Economists and experts, both Indian and non-Indian, approve the scope and priorities of the Draft Outline which they regard as big and ambitious but "within the capacity of the nation". British, American and German financial quarters believe the Outline to be so workmanlike that the foreign assistance required should not be difficult to obtain.

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So far, however, the Outline has roused little enthusiasm among those very sections of the Indian people who are expected—politically, intellectually and organisationally—to give life to the paper plan. In the first six weeks of its publication, Indian press comments tended on balance to be rather critical, and even Indian officialdom, at home and abroad, failed to push it. The Government of India and the Planning Commission say they intend to revise the Outline in the light of the comments made.

Most of the critics argue that the Plan is not big enough in relation to the social and economic goals adopted by the country; it is, in fact, smaller by a fifth than envisaged earlier. In the earlier 20-years' perspective plan drawn up in 1955-56, investment for the Third Plan was set down as in the present Outline, but prices have meanwhile gone up by 20 per cent. Critics also claim that more taxation is possible notwithstanding the low income and consumption level of the mass of the people—indirect, affecting all the people, and direct, heavy taxation of the well-to-do. The Outline proposes that during the Third Plan period the level of investment should be raised from 11 per cent of the national income to 14 per cent, and the present rate of savings of about 8 per cent of the national income raised to 11 per cent. The balance is to be met from foreign assistance.

Even the more orthodox economists and politicians think a little more deficit financing and inflation could be risked to maintain money circulation in step with the expansion of the economy, but the Government has timidly kept deficit financing at the low figure of Rs. 5,500 million. In the Second Plan deficit financing ran to the order of Rs. 11,750 million and was not followed by undue or unmanageable inflation. It is widely believed that with better organisation and education of the people prices and wages should be stabilised, small savings encouraged, and the problem of unemployment tackled through training and constructive work. There is also criticism that the Government hesitates to introduce the small doses of compulsion demanded by the situation and quite practicable within the framework of the democratic constitution. One of the greatest irritations is the delay in the States in carrying through land reforms on which the country and the Government have long since agreed.

Some of the planning experts, too, would like to take bigger steps forward than they have found expedient. Their handicaps are twofold: existing economic factors and politics. The pattern of investment has to be allotted in proper proportion between public and private sectors while mobilisation of resources has to be effected side by side with a great extension in the social services, just as the production of goods must be related to the facilities of transportation and marketing. Complicated though this is, it can nonetheless, be solved by technique and organisation. In present-day conditions, say the experts, an annual growth of 6 per cent is the optimum. With a quota of foreign assistance this is entirely practicable and also a very reasonable expectation, in view of the rich potentialities of the Indian market.

Any plan, they say, could be exceeded by the imponderable factors of wide public participation. The imbalance in phased

progress that might follow from overfulfilment of targets would be welcome because it would mean the whole process could then be speeded up. Unfortunately the facts in India are otherwise. Progressive and left-wing politicians, while giving lip service to planning in principle, in fact devote all their energies to destructive agitation. The need for sharing the burdens of taxes, organisation, responsibility, and even of popularising the plan to the public, is not admitted by the opponents of the Congress party. Some months ago the Congress leaders agreed to form with all progressive forces in the country a National Plan Front, but so far nothing has come of it.

Everywhere in India voices are heard in favour of a big push in public relations in order to facilitate mass cooperation with the state. The demand is so widespread and persistent that some measure in this direction seems overdue. Both critics and defenders of the plan want a bigger one. The difference is that critics demand a more imaginative plan to start with, while the planners want the political parties to be agreed on a common aim first.

The Third Plan is viewed as the key stage for a self-sustaining and self-propelling economy. The good years of 1959 and 1960 have created a certain momentum and buoyancy in industrial and commercial circles, a circumstance which the national leaders may make use of for a bolder approach to the investment problem. 1961 is an election year, however, and it is thought in many quarters that politicians in search of votes may hesitate to include new taxes in the 1961 budget due next February. Collecting votes on a soft line would only postpone the burdens of stiff taxation to the later years of the Plan, which in its turn would mean a time lag and disequilibrium in the Plan phases, causing a setback to the whole programme. This danger is so clear that it is hoped Mr. Nehru's Government will know how to deal with it. The time would seem to be from now to the end of this year to prepare for new, productive taxation that will increase automatically with the years. The time is also now to popularise the Plan with the widest public, with electioneering as such subordinated for once to the needs of faster economic progress, and hence a bigger Plan.

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COOPERATIVES IN MONGOLIA

E. H. RAWLINGS

AN intensive drive towards collectivisation began in 1954-55 in the Mongolian People's Republic, when it was decided to collectivise the herdsmen, who form the majority of her rural population. At the end of 1959, the entire herding population had joined cooperatives, which owned three-quarters of the country's livestock, the remainder being the private property of cooperative members. At the beginning of this year there existed 389 large agricultural cooperatives, each with an average of 475 households and 59,000 head of livestock of which 43,000 are common property. This means that approximately 655,000 have been collectivised out of a total population of about one million.

However, the activities of the cooperatives are not merely confined to stockbreeding, but are expected to engage in other agricultural work. In order that they receive help with such tasks as timber felling, land tilling, transport and so forth, a number of machine and livestock stations have been set up which will undertake work on contract, and each cooperative has a veterinary centre staffed by specialists.

The idea of the cooperatives is to make it attractive for the traditionally nomad people to settle down in a fixed community, where they can tend to the cattle under suitable conditions. A cooperative centre consists of either yurts (tents) or prefabricated houses, and has its own schools, clubs, cinemas and medical centre.

Although the cooperatives are a political success, they cannot be regarded as an economic success. In the first place labour productivity is low, and many members do not work the minimum of work-day units, while little attention has been paid to accounts and providing warm winter shelter for the livestock. Therefore, State aid to the cooperatives has had to be increased and all

arrears of compulsory deliveries since 1954 written off. In order to avert the position a number of reforms have now been introduced. Thus, members who fail to do their share can be reprimanded, fined in terms of work-day units or even expelled from the cooperative. Moreover, the number of work-day units to be filled has increased from 73 to 150 a year for men, and to 100 for women. A cooperative member may only keep a maximum of 100 cattle for his private use.

Therefore, the present problem facing the Mongolian Government is to get a more effective working system on the cooperatives which can best be done by educating the members in more efficient working methods. But it will, of course, require time before former members of a nomad society can adjust themselves to a settled socialised system. When this is achieved, it will be possible to expand and improve the herds on fodder. According to the National Economy Development Plan for 1960, there should be a total of 24.3 million head of livestock by September 1960.

Apart from the cooperatives, 25 large State farms were established by mid-1959, cultivating four-fifths of the land actually tilled, and this area is being expanded to virgin lands with the help of Soviet material and personnel, and unskilled Chinese labour is employed on building irrigation systems. Wheat is the main crop grown on two State farms at Bat Sumner and at Karakorum to supply flour for mills now being established in different regions with Soviet aid. It is expected that Mongolia will be self-supporting in flour by 1961.

In the past, industry in Mongolia was confined to the processing of the products of the livestock, but now coal, oil, manganese, copper, tungsten and other mineral deposits are being more extensively exploited. The manufacturing industry is also expanding quickly, and a variety of factories, including shoe, paper, worsted and so forth, were put into operation in 1959.

Generally speaking, Mongolia is being modernised at a considerable speed, and the main slogan of the day is for everyone to work harder, especially the women, who form half the industrial labour force. The call for extra work receives a good response as tens of thousands of city residents of all walks of life turn out on special occasions to do manual labour on Saturdays and Sundays.

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Cinema Industry in Pakistan

Ghulam Malik

FILM making in Pakistan has not yet passed the pangs of its developing stage. Of course, about 20 years before Pakistan, Lahore had three flourishing studios turning out excellent films. These Lahore studios were owned by Hindus who fled to India with as much capital and equipment as possible and their deserted studios were completely gutted by the Lahore rioting mobs in 1947. Things then were quiet for some years.

Around 1952, the rebuilding of studios in Lahore was started by some leading film industrialists who could foresee the future scope of cinema in Pakistan. By 1955-56 Lahore's Pancholi studio produced the first Pakistani film "Teri Yad". Although the film was a complete flop, it was an admirable effort to produce a picture with outdated equipment and men with practically no technical know-how. Some young boys, garbed as girls, were hired for bit roles.

In succession six more films were produced with extremely poor results. Naturally no Pakistani film distributor or exhibitor thought of having these films. They had then the free choice of bringing Indian films made in Bombay and Calcutta for screening in West and East Pakistan. The Pakistan Government often pondered over the desirability of allowing the unlimited imports of Indian films which were said to "adversely" affect Pakistan's cultural life.

Meantime, some producers went to Lahore and felt the need of having new studios. First Shahnoor studio came into existence, and its first venture "Dopatta" made some mark. Finding it almost impossible to capture the market by competing with well-established Indian producers, the government eventually adopted various measures leading to the banning of imports of Indian films.

Pakistani film stars like songstress Noorjehan, whose records have popularity both in India and Pakistan, came to Lahore in order to settle there. They were followed by others like Sahiba and Santosh, but the majority of the famous film stars of India are Moslems and they have not moved out of Bombay.

At present there are four studios in Lahore, the New Evernew being the biggest and most modern amongst them. Karachi has one studio, Eastern Films, which is fairly well-equipped.

Dacca, the capital of East Pakistan, has not a single privately-owned studio. Several years ago many false steps and starts were made by ambitious and adventurous men and organizations, but success was always far away. At last, under the First Five-Year Plan, the Pakistan Government stepped in and established a studio in Dacca under a newly created Film Development Corporation (FDC), which started functioning in February 1958. It is now adding a second floor and a new set to cope with the demand of the producers who solely depend on it. The FDC gives all assistance, cooperation and facilities to film producers in Dacca who lag far behind of their counterparts in Lahore.

The FDC studio in Dacca is the best equipped studio in the whole of Pakistan. Film producers in East Pakistan pay Rs. 500 for eight hours use of the studio whereas the charge in West Pakistan is Rs. 650. In addition, the FDC provides producers with films from its own stock as it is sometimes difficult to procure because of uncertain imports. In West Pakistan the producers are not thus favoured by the Government.

In Pakistan, film making (a technical and skilled job) has been undertaken by people who have had no knowledge and experience in this line. This is even more true in the case of East Pakistan. Surprisingly "producers", directors" and "stars" cropped up almost overnight multiplying their numbers. Unlike other industries, money has not been tight in it. Unmindful of failures and flops; undaunted by the difficulties and defects, the producers pour on money in making films which often fail to fetch a profit.

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Currently 70 producers are working in Lahore and some 50 parties are on the FDC's waiting list in Dacca for its studio.

In spite of all the energy and enthusiasm, the film producers and directors encounter numerous handicaps and hindrances. Things are more difficult in Dacca than in Lahore. In Dacca the financier is called the producer though the actual job is being done by a director.

Religion and social taboos have adversely affected the growth of the film industry in Pakistan. No girl of a "good family" will ever think of appearing in a picture. The several hundred professional "dancing girls" in Lahore and Karachi enable directors to make their choice, but in Dacca the class of "dancing girls" is unknown and it is sometimes hard to obtain suitable actresses. Once an exasperated Dacca film director divulged: "While shooting a dance sequence, I asked the girl to lift her sari, but she pointed to her father who was present, and said that he would object. Now if the father takes away my job, then what shall I do?" On the other hand, it is very simple to shoot "hot" dance scenes in Lahore with scantily clad girls, and the film makers of Dacca often go to Lahore to shoot dances or to record music since there is no good orchestra at Dacca.

The films made in Lahore are rather loud in taste with plenty of suggestive dances and rock 'n' roll type music. In East Pakistan, the choice is different. There they want to depict typical Bengali background of life. In a Lahore film, the hero might be seen galloping on a horse to chase his girl, but in Dacca they might be seen holding hands under a tree or going in a slow boat. A. J. Karder, the well-known Pakistani film director, maintains that realism in films is only possible in East Pakistan.

One East Pakistani film named "The Day Shall Dawn" was shown at the Venice Film Festival in 1959 and also got some acclaim in Communist countries of Eastern Europe. The film industry in Pakistan is undeniably making long strides towards better development. It must not be forgotten that the cinema is the only channel of entertainment for the ordinary people.

World Bank Loan for Indian Railways

THE World Bank has approved a loan equivalent to \$70 million to India for the improvement and expansion of her railways. The loan will cover the greater part of the foreign exchange required for the final year of the railway programme under India's Second Five-Year Plan, ending March 31, 1961. The railway programme has been a central part of the Plan, accounting for about one-quarter of all public expenditures under the Plan.

Six private commercial banks are participating in the loan, without the World Bank's guarantee, to the extent of \$2,050,000.

The Bank has now granted \$328 million for the Indian Railways, the largest amount ever lent by the Bank for a single project. A loan of \$33 million was made in 1949 for railway rehabilitation and since then seven loans totaling \$295 million have been made to assist in financing the Indian Railways' programme of expansion in the Second Five-Year Plan.

The Indian Railway system, comprising some 35,000 route miles, is one of the largest in the world. It is owned by the Government and managed by the Railway Board, a part of the Ministry of Railways. The railways handle the bulk of India's long distance freight and passenger traffic and play a vital role in the economic development of the country.

The five-year railway programme is being carried out to increase carrying capacity, freight capacity from 114 million to 162 million tons a year, passenger capacity by about 15 per cent, and improve operational efficiency. The most important objectives of the programme are the acquisition of 2,161 locomotives, 8,836 passenger cars and 111,739 freight cars; the doubling of 1,300 miles of main-line track; the replacement of 8,000 miles of track; the construction of 830 miles of new lines to give access to coal and ore fields and to areas lacking transportation; the electrification of 886 miles of mainlines in regions of high density passenger and freight traffic, particularly the Calcutta area and lines serving steel plants; the construction of bridges; and improvements in yards and signalling facilities.

By the fourth year of the programme, the amount of freight traffic originating in India had risen by a fourth to 145 million tons and passenger traffic had increased by 16 per cent. By December 31, 1959, the railways had received delivery of 1,817 locomotives, 5,700 passenger cars and 83,606 freight cars. About 6,500 miles of rail have been replaced; track doubling has been completed on 700 miles; 600 miles of new lines have been opened to traffic; the electrification of 675 miles was scheduled for completion in the first half of 1961 with the balance later and final shipment of 110 electric locomotives in January 1961. One of the bridges in the programme, the Ganga bridge across the River Ganges in Bihar State, was opened in May 1959 and carried 80 per cent more traffic than the ferry service it replaced. Work on other bridges and on improvements in yards and signalling equipment is proceeding well.

Total investment in the railway programme in the first four years of the Second Five-Year Plan is estimated at 8.7 billion rupees (\$1,827 million); and 2.3 billion rupees (\$483 million) is expected to be expended during the current and last year of the Plan. Of the total amount, foreign exchange requirements are now estimated at \$718 million, of which 40 per cent will have been supplied by the Bank and another 20 per cent from other external sources. The original foreign exchange estimate was \$893 million, which has been progressively reduced to the present figure of \$718 million because of the increased availability of railway equipment manufactured in India.

The Indian Railways estimate that \$85 million in foreign exchange will be required for purchases in the last year of the programme. The World Bank loan will provide \$70 million of this amount which will be used for the purchase abroad of rolling stock, track materials and other equipment.

UK-Japan Trade Liberalisation

DURING the first six months of 1960 UK exports to Japan dropped to £12.7 million, i.e. by about one-third of the value of exports during the corresponding period of 1959 which amounted to £18.2 million. During the same period UK imports from Japan dropped by about 12 per cent, namely from £22.5 million in the first half of 1959 to £20 million during the first six months of 1960.

The new Anglo-Japanese trade arrangements which were signed in London on July 15, and will cover the 12-month period ending March 31, 1961, provide opportunities for an increased trade between the two countries, and have been, therefore, on the whole welcomed as a step in the right direction.

Japan has recently embarked on a programme of import liberalisation, and it is expected that the new agreement may result in an increase of UK exports to Japan of £3.5 million in 1960-61.

Japan's foreign currency reserves have been increasing steadily and reached a peak of over US\$1,500 million by the end of July. This trend has enabled the Japanese authorities to free from import control a large number of goods, to increase the global import quotas for goods which are still subject to import control, and to establish import quotas for a range of goods which were not allowed to be imported at all in the past. The new arrangements will provide better opportunities to export to Japan motor cars, crawler tractors, machine tools, duplicating machines, safety razors and blades, knitwear and woven apparel, plate and sheet glass and many other goods. The quota for wool textiles will be £3,150,000 and will be available for imports from all countries except France and Italy. It is expected that during the period of the year ending March 31, 1961, the Japanese authorities will be able to carry out further import liberalisation measures which would benefit United Kingdom and Colonial exports to Japan.

The new Anglo-Japanese arrangements provide for a liberalisation of imports from Japan which may lead to an increase of UK imports from Japan by £2.5 million—£3 million during 1960-61. A number of goods the imports of which were previously restricted by quotas (e.g. brushes, tiles, canned tuna, flower bulbs, cultured pearls) have been freed from control. In addition increased import quotas for a range of other goods have been fixed, including apparel other than knitted, netted, or crocheted goods (£700,000), knitted apparel (£350,000), silk piece goods (£200,000), canned and bottled fruit (£300,000), cameras (£375,000), toys and sports goods (£415,000), plastics materials (£450,000), transistor radios (£200,000), as well as new quotas for various goods, including man-made fibre piece goods, domestic sewing machines, mopeds and scooters and binoculars.

Some UK manufacturers have expressed apprehension that the liberalisation of imports of certain Japanese goods would price out their goods in the UK home market. On the other hand, there are some misgivings among Japanese business circles that the UK import discrimination against Japan while reduced has not been eliminated, and they feel that certain quotas have been fixed at too low a level. These Japanese circles hope for further concessions to be achieved in the Trade Treaty, which is now being negotiated. But apart from sectional interests, there is little doubt that the new arrangements provide a better climate for the development of trade in both directions between the two countries with benefits from the point of view of overall national economy of the UK and Japan. Certain contracts secured recently by British engineering firms from Japan (e.g. for the design and equipment of a process plant to treat ammonia gas) point to possibilities to develop sales of industrial equipment to Japan on a larger scale than in the past.

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INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL NOTES

D.L.F. LOAN FOR ASSAM ELECTRICITY PROJECT

The Development Loan Fund approved a \$2.5 million loan to the Government of India to finance the foreign exchange costs of building a 27,000-kilowatt hydro-electric power plant and ancillary transmission and substation facilities for a project in the State of Assam. The Assam State Electricity Board will be the ultimate recipient of the funds. Proceeds of this loan will be used to procure in the United States, except as the Managing Director may otherwise agree, certain generating equipment, switchgear, cables, insulators, construction machinery, tools, and related items.

Total cost of the project is estimated at \$15.6 million, of which the equivalent of \$13.1 million will consist of local costs for dams, power plant, and other civil works and will be financed by the borrower.

Power facilities in the State of Assam at present are inadequate to meet demands. The Electricity Board operates diesel and hydro plants with a combined capacity of about 13,600 kilowatts, whereas the demand for power is expected to amount to 24,110 kilowatts in 1963-4, and 31,590 by 1968.

D.L.F. LOANS FOR INDIA

The Development Loan Fund announced the simultaneous signing of six loan agreements covering loans totaling \$79.2 million for enterprises in India. Five of the loans are for power generating facilities, and one is for the importation of American-made Jeep and truck parts.

The six loans are as follows:

Road Transport Loan, \$13,100,000

This loan will enable private manufacturing firms in India to procure American-made auto parts to be assembled into Jeeps and trucks in India. The firms will receive licences from the Government enabling them to import the components

and pay the US suppliers with the dollars provided by D.L.F. The auto components to be imported will consist mainly of frames, axles, transmissions, differentials, and wheels. These will be combined with other components manufactured in India to produce 5,000 Jeeps; 800 Jeep station wagons, 800 Jeep trucks, 800 Dodge one-ton trucks, and 6,000 Dodge three-ton trucks.

Ahmedabad Power Project, \$3,900,000

This loan to the privately owned Ahmedabad Electricity Co. Ltd. will cover the foreign-exchange costs of adding 30,000 kilowatts of generating capacity to its system in the State of Bombay. The project calls for the addition of a 30,000-kw steam generator, control facilities, boilers, and related equipment in an existing plant facility. Another 30,000-kilowatt unit is scheduled to be installed in the future.

Barauni Thermal Power Project, \$3,800,000

This project will add 30,000 kilowatts of generating capacity to a power plant at Barauni, near the Ganges River some 250 miles north-west of Calcutta. The plant is owned and managed by the Bihar State Electric Board. The development of Bihar has hitherto been handicapped by shortage of power for irrigation and industry.

Sharavathi Hydroelectric Power Project, \$8,400,000

This loan will assist in financing a hydro-electric project, already under construction by the State of Mysore, which will have an initial installation of approximately 180,000 kilowatts. The generating capacity of the plant can ultimately be increased to 900,000 kilowatts. Increases in power supply of that magnitude are needed to support continued rapid industrialization in Mysore.

Durgapur Thermal Power Project, \$20,000,000

This loan will finance the addition of 120,000 kilowatts to the generating

capacity of a thermal power plant at Durgapur, on the edge of the Raniganj coalfields about 80 miles north-west of Calcutta. The plant will be owned and managed by the State of West Bengal and will serve one of India's most highly industrialized areas.

Chandrapura Thermal Power Project, \$30,000,000

This project will provide a 250,000-kw thermal power plant to be built in the Damodar Valley with appurtenant workshops, water cooling and purifying facilities, transformers and switchyard, etc.; and also will include about 250 miles of transmission line, transformer bays, substations, and control and metering equipment. The plant will be owned by the Damodar Valley Corporation. It will use low-grade fuel brought by conveyor system from a nearby coal washery, fuel which otherwise would be largely wasted. The need for power generation capacity in the Damodar Valley is expected to increase from 309,000 kilowatts in 1960 to more than a million kilowatts by 1965. The Chandrapura plant is one of a series of facilities planned to meet this need.

UK WOOL TRADE WITH ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

During the first half of 1960 UK global imports of raw wool and other animal hair and wool tops were valued at £88.5 million, as against £89.5 million during the corresponding period of last year. But as the wool prices were higher this year the 1960 imports show a decrease in quantity.

The value of imports of these goods from Asian and Pacific countries developed as follows:

	1959	1960
		first 6 months of year
Australia	37.1	32.1
New Zealand	17.7	23.1
India	1.6	1.6
Pakistan	0.9	1.9
China	0.8	0.9

(all figures in £ million)

In the case of the 1960 imports from China raw wool accounted for £223,638 and animal hair for £662,176.

TRADE WITH CHINA

Enquiries invited from manufacturers and importers

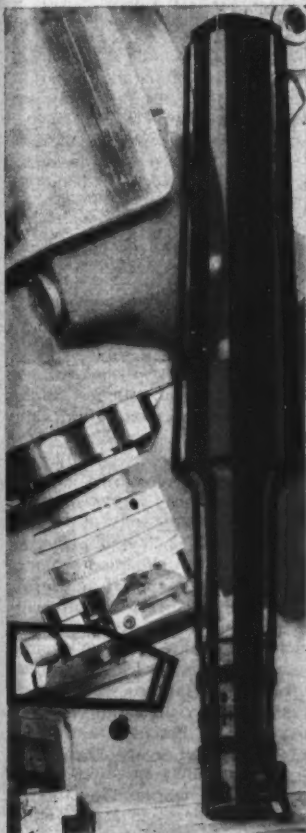
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Nutrition and Manuring of Tropical Crops by A. JACOB and DR. VON UEXKULL, translated by DR. C. L. WHITTLES (Verlagsgesellschaft für Ackerbau mbH, 1 Hannover. 2nd revised edition, US\$ 7.50).

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UK global exports of wool tops increased to 51.6 million lb. valued at £23.6 million during the first half of 1960 as against 45.3 million lb. valued at £18.0 million during the corresponding period of 1959. The 1960 exports included those to India, £2.3 million; Pakistan, £0.5 million; Hong Kong, £0.4 million; Japan, £1.2 million; and to China, £2.7 million (in the case of China there was a big increase from 2.7 million lb. valued at £0.8 million during the first half of 1959 to 6.2 million lb. valued at £2.7 million during the first half of 1960).

UK exports of raw wool to Japan amounted to 1.1 million lb. valued at £0.3 million during the first half of 1960 showing an increase compared with the corresponding period of last year.

SOUTH AFRICAN WOOL FOR THE FAR EAST

During the 1959-60 season South African exports of wool to Japan increased to 16.5 million lb. (previous season—10.1 million lb.), and exports to China show an increase from 2.2 million lb. during the 1958-59 season to 8.0 million lb. during the 1959-60 season. In addition South Africa exported to China 5.1 million lb. wool tops during the 1959-60 season compared with 2.1 million lb. during the previous season.

SOVIET TRADE WITH ASIA

In 1959 China became the biggest trading partner of the Soviet Union (and has surpassed Soviet Union's trade with East Germany). According to the recently published Soviet statistical survey on foreign trade for 1959 the trade with China accounted for nearly 20 per cent of the Soviet Union's global trade (over 17 per cent of Soviet global exports and over 21 per cent of Soviet global imports). Soviet exports to China increased from 2,536 million roubles in 1958 to 3,818 million roubles in 1959 (in the export field East Germany still occupied the first place with a value of 4,120 million roubles in 1959), while Soviet imports from China increased from 3,525 million in 1958 to 4,401 million roubles in 1959.

Soviet Union exports to other Asian countries developed as follows:

	1958	1959
<i>Increased exports:</i>		
Afghanistan ...	92.5	113.4
North Vietnam ...	32.6	79.3
Cambodia ...	1.6	5.4
North Korea ...	232.2	296.5
Federation of Malaya ...	0.2	3.6
Mongolia ...	259.4	314.9
Thailand ...	1.2	3.5
Japan ...	79.7	133.4
<i>Decreased exports:</i>		
Burma ...	10.3	6.1
India ...	520.0	272.1
Indonesia ...	108.7	63.1
Pakistan ...	7.9	3.8
Ceylon ...	2.4	2.0

(all figures in million roubles)

Soviet imports from Asian countries developed as follows:

	1958	1959
<i>Increased imports</i>		
Afghanistan ...	50.4	62.4
Burma ...	—	16.2
North Vietnam ...	39.7	62.6
India ...	203.7	242.1
North Korea ...	188.2	206.4
Federation of Malaya ...	471.8	506.8
Mongolia ...	188.7	198.1
Thailand ...	—	11.6
Ceylon ...	17.3	18.8
Japan ...	71.2	93.6
<i>Decreased imports:</i>		
Indonesia ...	46.3	44.0
Pakistan ...	29.9	14.6

(all figures in million roubles)

WEST GERMAN INVESTORS TO VISIT PAKISTAN

A delegation of industrialists and businessmen from West Germany is to visit Pakistan in October to explore new possibilities of investments in the industrial sector. The proposed visit is being arranged by the Near and Middle East Association of West Germany. An Air Agreement between Pakistan and West Germany was signed in Bonn recently. The agreement grants mutual right and facilities for the operation of international air services by the airlines of Pakistan and West Germany.

INDONESIA'S TRADE WITH EAST EUROPE

The Three-Year Trade Agreement (1961-63) between Indonesia and the Soviet Union which was concluded during the recent visit of Indonesia's First Minister Dr. Djuanda to Moscow provides for an increase of trade between the two countries. It is expected that by 1963 the annual rate of trade will treble compared with the 1959 level.

Indonesia will import from the Soviet Union road building machinery, excavators, tractors, agricultural machinery, machine tools and other equipment, rolled ferrous metals, building materials, newsprint, medicines, chemical and oil products. The Soviet Union will increase her purchases of Indonesian rubber, hides, vegetable fats, spices, coffee, resins and other produce.

During his stay in Moscow Dr. Djuanda reached yet another agreement on the building of a single steel works in Indonesia, with an annual capacity of 100,000 tons, instead of two 50,000-ton plants as proposed in the Soviet-Indonesian protocol of January 3, 1959. A special agreement provides for Soviet deliveries equipment, materials, instruments and radioactive isotopes which are required for an atomic research reactor and a nuclear subcritical assembly for training purposes.

Dr. Djuanda also visited Hungary and Czechoslovakia. In Budapest an agreement was reached to set up a working committee for drawing up a three-year trade agreement. The Hungarian Government confirmed their readiness to extend long-term credits to Indonesia for the delivery of capital goods, and offered assistance to Indonesia in oil and ore prospecting, mining, electrification, bridge building, as well as in the development of transport, aluminium and drug industries.

In Prague an agreement was signed on economic cooperation between Czechoslovakia and Indonesia, including Czechoslovak deliveries of complete plants, industrial equipment and other capital goods. The deliveries will be carried out under long-term credits which the Czechoslovak Government is extending to Indonesia to

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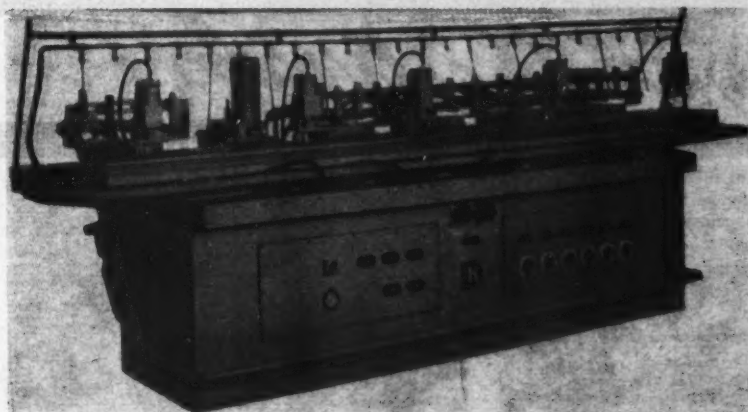
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the amount of £12 million. The construction of chemical factories in Indonesia was also discussed.

BURMEISTER & WAIN IN JAPAN

During recent negotiations between Burmeister & Wain, Copenhagen, manufacturers of diesel engines, and their licensee in Japan, Mitsui Shipbuilding & Engineering Co. Ltd., the licence agreement between the two companies was renewed to run until 1971.

Mitsui is one of B&W's oldest licensees, the first agreement being made as early as in 1926, and Mitsui has since then built B&W engines totalling more than 1 million brake horsepower.

At the same time the agreement with Mitsui's sub-licensee, Hitachi Shipbuilding & Engineering Co. Ltd., was renewed, with the modification that in future Hitachi holds the licence direct from Burmeister & Wain.

FINANCING OF RUBBER REPLANTING IN THAILAND

The Thai Government has approved a bill to assist rubber planters in replacing the present rubber trees by new higher yielding trees. The bill establishes a cess on rubber exports, and the proceeds from the cess are to be used as follows: 90 per cent for replanting purposes, 5 per cent

for research, and 5 per cent for administrative expenses.

INDONESIA'S ROAD CONSTRUCTION PLAN

Under a three-year plan, 2,500 kilometres of new roads are to be constructed in Indonesia, while more than half of the country's 79,000 kilometre-long highway system is to be improved. The total number of vehicles using public roads in Indonesia had risen by more than 300 per cent compared with the pre-war total.

NEW INDUSTRIES FOR EAST PAKISTAN

The Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation plans to set up a number of new industries in East Pakistan at a cost of over Rs. 800 million. Some of the schemes have already been submitted to the Government for approval and others are being finalised.

The Corporation is at present working on a pharmaceutical factory at Dacca, an anti-biotic factory at Tongi, near Dacca, and two more jute mills of 250 looms each, whose capacity is expected to be doubled by the end of 1965.

It is also undertaking the expansion of one jute mill at Khulna, balancing, modernisation and expansion of one cotton mill at Kaliganj and expansion of the Khulna Newsprint Factory at a cost of

over Rs. 47 million.

Since its formation, the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation has set up 20 industrial projects in East Pakistan at a total investment of over Rs. 520 million.

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The Office of the India Supply Mission, 2536 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, 8, D.C., United States of America, invites tenders for the following:

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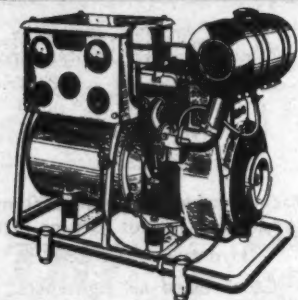
Tenders are to be returned direct to India Supply Mission, 2536 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, 8, D.C., United States of America, so as to reach them by October 11, 1960.

Specimen copy of the above enquiry can be seen at Engineering Branch, India Store Dept., Bromyard Avenue, Acton, London W.3, under the following reference: S.3336/60/NSC/ENG.2.

THOUSANDS OF MAG MOTORS

all over the World

MOTOWATT



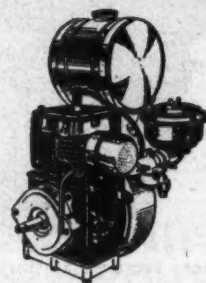
Benzine-electro-aggregate for the drive of building machines, electric motors, etc., for electric lighting of building works, distant places.
Continuous rating 5 kW, constant voltage 100/200 V by compound acceleration without exciter.
It with 4-stroke MAG motor type 1040-SRL for benzine and petrol-drive. Continuous rating of the motor 8-9 HP.

PUMP



Irrigation and building purposes. It with 4-stroke MAG motor type 1040-SRL for benzine and petrol-drive. Continuous rating of the motor 8-9 HP.
Pump: 700 litres per minute at 15 meter manometric pressure.
Automatic suction; easy to be transported.

MOTORS



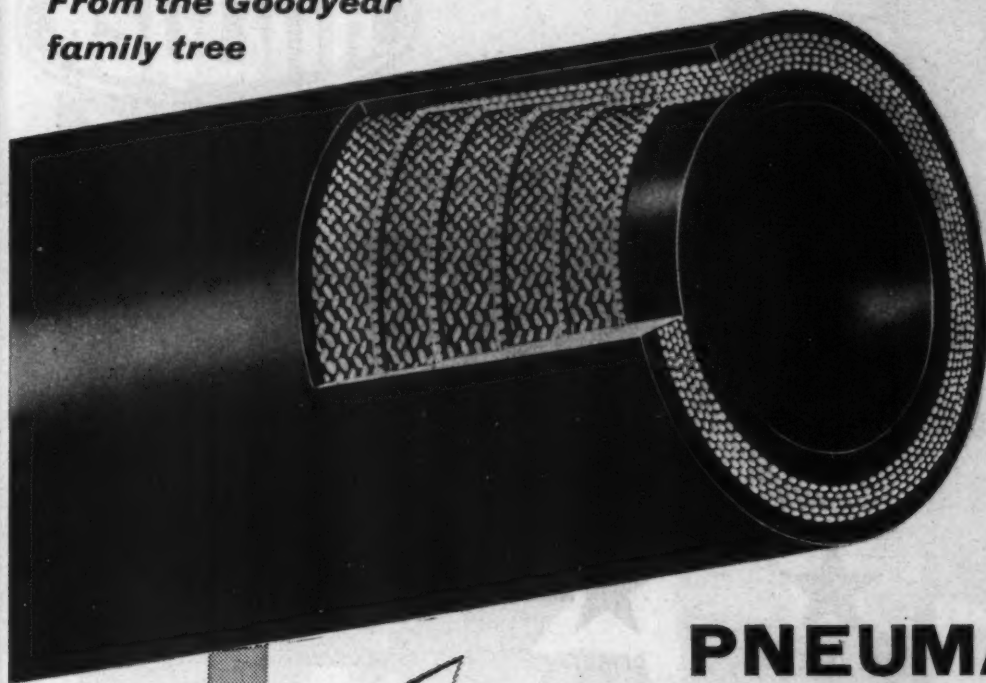
— for benzine and petrol-drive
— for the drive of concrete-mixers, pumps, winches, agricultural machines, etc.
Our manufacturing programme comprises 2-stroke and 4-stroke motors with 1 or 2 cylinders of 2 to 12 HP continuous rating.



MOTOSACOCHE SA
GENEVE/SUISSE



From the Goodyear family tree



PNEUMATIC NUMISMATICS

Numismatics? Yes, because someone must take the coins into account wherever air hose is used. If you want to keep down the operating costs of drilling, riveting, chipping or any other pneumatic tool duty, choose Goodyear hose. Strong and flexible, it gives lasting, trouble-free service with highest resistance to abrasion. In the Goodyear family tree there is a wide range of constructions, sizes and working pressures. Ask the Goodyear Technical Service for assistance in selecting the most economical hose for your jobs.

* Wrapped Ply

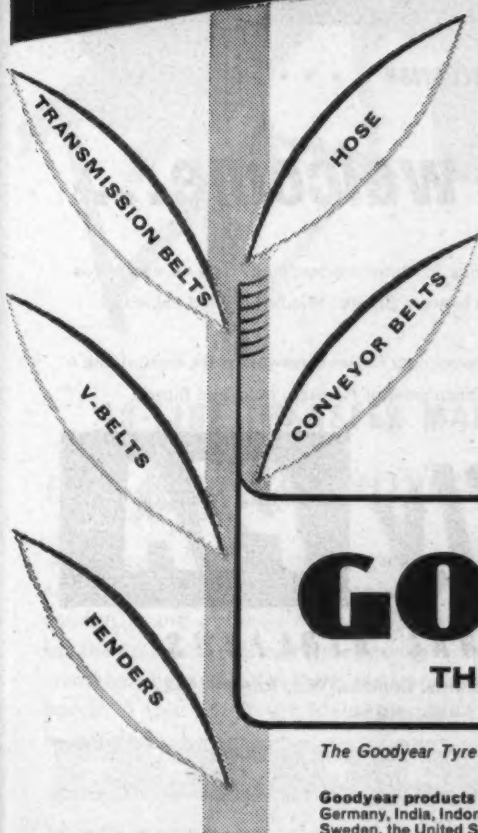
A substantial construction for really hard service. Machine-built on mandrels to ensure smooth, uniform bore. Tube and covers compounded to suit duty. Lengths up to 60 ft.

* Braided Cord

An easily-handled hose which does not readily kink. Mandrel-built for smooth, uniform bore. Close control of variations in dimensions when under pressure. Supplied in lengths up to 60 ft.

* Long Length

Machine-built with braid reinforcement in lengths up to 500 ft. Minimises waste as the exact length may be cut off as required. Flexible and kink-free.

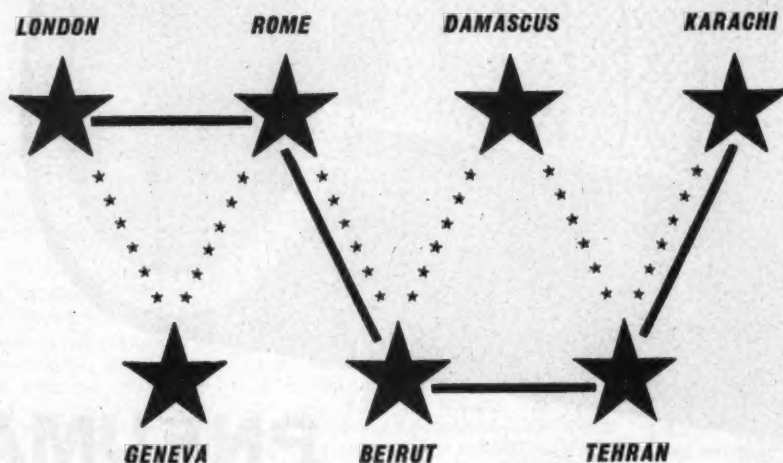


GOOD YEAR

THE GREATEST NAME IN RUBBER

The Goodyear Tyre & Rubber Company (G.B.) Limited, Industrial Products Department, Wolverhampton
Export Enquiries: 17 Stratton Street, W.1

Goodyear products are manufactured in: Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Colombia, Cuba, Elre, England, Germany, India, Indonesia, Japan, Luxembourg, Mexico, New Zealand, Peru, the Philippines, Scotland, South Africa, Sweden, the United States, Venezuela.
Branches, Distributors and Dealers throughout the world.



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We do our utmost to live up to our dream of being the most comfortable and hospitable airline in the world. It is a big dream, but most of our passengers are convinced that it has already come true!

PIA Boeing 707 Intercontinental and Super-Constellation services between Europe, Middle East and Pakistan.

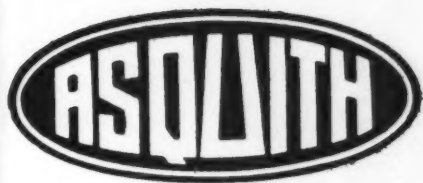
PIA Domestic and Regional network is the onward link for the main cities of Pakistan, India and Burma.

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PAKISTAN INTERNATIONAL AIRLINES

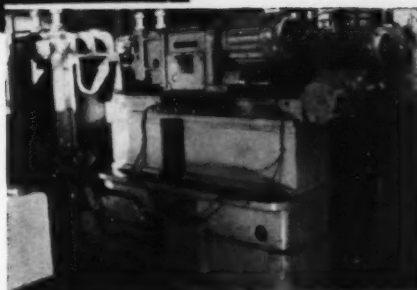
Ask your usual Travel Agent for details or PIA, 45, Piccadilly, London, W.1. Regent 5544 and Club Road, Karachi. Tel: 51061, 50354



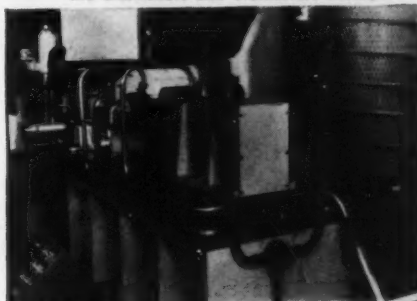


IN-LINE TRANSFER MACHINE FOR *Austin* CYLINDER BLOCKS

This Asquith 14-station in-line transfer machine provides, among other operations, for semi-finish and finish boring crankshaft and camshaft bores; boring and facing a recess for the oil pump; milling thrust bearing faces on the central crankshaft bearing and reaming the crankshaft and camshaft bores. A split liner brush is also pressed in and fine bored in position.



Two 3 h.p. Asquith Unit Heads which finish ream the crankshaft and crankshaft bores.



Hydraulically operated pressing station for inserting liner bushes.

ASQUITH MACHINE TOOL CORPORATION LTD.

HIGHROAD WELL · HALIFAX · LONDON OFFICE: HALIFAX HOUSE · STRAND · LONDON, W.C.2

A Drink Conquers the World

From oriental bazaars to Lapland tents, in the homes and cafés of Europe and America - in fact, everywhere in the world - coffee is an everyday drink. In highly industrialized European countries, consumption of coffee per head has risen to 10 to 12 pounds a year. In the United States, it exceeds 14 pounds.



Annual world production of green coffee amounts to 3 million tons - of which 83% comes from Latin America and 13% from Africa. Brazil alone produces 50% of the world's total crop. In every country where coffee is grown it has become a decisive factor in the economy.

Both the quality and quantity of the crop depend upon correct fertilization. In Southern India, for example, where the soil received the correct amounts of nitrogen, together with phosphate and potash, the crop yield was ten times larger than the average for the country.

In short, mineral fertilizers - and, above all, nitrogen fertilizers - ensure improvement in crop yields.

Nitrogen from Germany primarily comes from the Ruhr area: from RUHR-STICKSTOFF AG at Bochum. This firm is the nitrogen sales organization of 8 factories producing synthetic nitrogen fertilizers and of a great number of coking plants. RUHR-STICKSTOFF is one of the world's largest nitrogen exporters. Its products help to achieve more and better crops in more than 90 countries.



RUHR-STICKSTOFF

AKTIENGESELLSCHAFT BOCHUM
WEST GERMANY



